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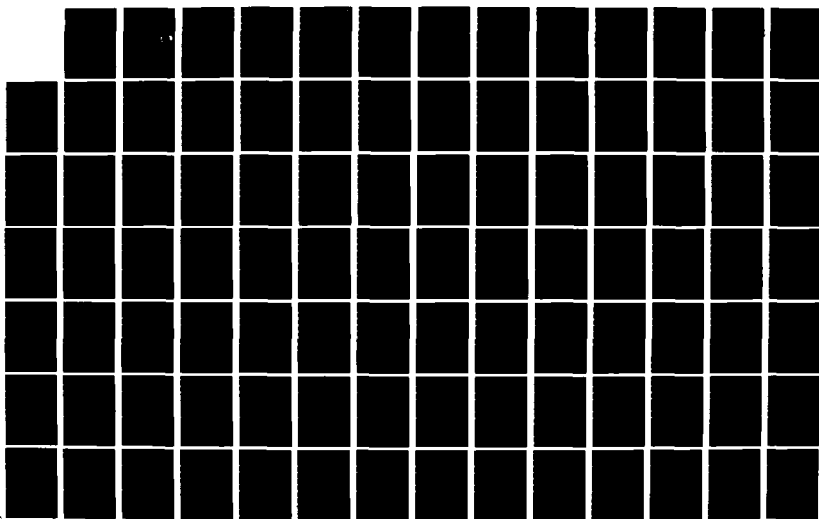
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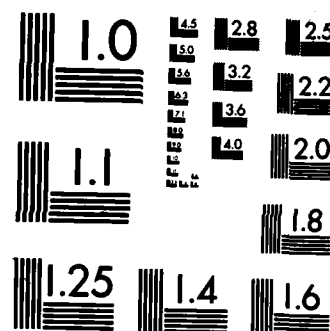
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DEVELOPMENTAL LEADERSHIP: A HUMAN
RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT PROJECT

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Final Report December, 1982



Approved for public release; distribution unlimited

A thesis submitted to the
University of Wisconsin-Stevens Point,
Stevens Point, Wisconsin in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for
a degree of Master of Arts in Communication.

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20. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number) This thesis is a Human Resource Development project designed to train leaders in communication skills and behaviors that will produce organizational involvement in subordinates. It develops a concept of leadership called "Developmental Leadership" which stresses the importance of interpersonal relations and relation- ship building between leader and subordinate as a critical step in influencing and impacting upon the subordinate. The concept is developed in an organizational climate where		

the leader has responsibilities to his superiors and the organization and to his subordinates. As such, developmental leadership stresses subordinate development, both individually and organizationally.

The goal of developmental leadership is to achieve internalization of organizational goals in the subordinate. This is done by getting the subordinate involved in the organization to which he belongs which is the focus of the training design. The concept emphasizes the leader's ability to achieve compliance with organizational standards because of his position power and thus stresses a need to move beyond compliance to involvement and, perhaps, internalization. The communication skills and behaviors addressed in the design emphasize personal power as the means to influence subordinates and gain involvement.

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Having heard an oral defense of the above thesis, the Advisory Committee:

- ☒ A) Finds the defense of the thesis to be satisfactory and accepts the thesis as submitted, subject to the following recommendation(s), if any:
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Ken Williams, Advisor
William C. Davidson
C.Y. Allen

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Lastly, I would like to thank my family for the sacrifices they made which allowed me to finish this program in the given time frame. Their support and understanding in re-arranging their time schedules to accommodate mine has greatly been appreciated.

To my PARENTS,

to my FAMILY,

and to my SON . . .

. . . who deserves to expect me, as a father, to be
nothing less than the model described in this paper.

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CHAPTER I

AN INTRODUCTION TO DEVELOPMENTAL LEADERSHIP

What is leadership? What does it mean to be a leader? Is there a difference between being a leader and being a manager? If so, what is it that differentiates leaders from managers? When an individual is able to answer these questions, the possibility then exists to explore a new concept in leadership, that of "developmental leadership."

The military distinguishes between leadership and management by the manner in which each affects subordinates. Managers have an indirect influence on subordinates by the process in which managers plan, organize, coordinate, direct, and control resources to accomplish the organizational mission. The resources the manager considers are men, money, material, and time.¹

Of the resources available to the manager, men are the most important. This resource is the foundation for the employment of the other resources. The manager uses the process of leadership to control this critical resource.²

Leadership, then, is the process by which an individual (perhaps a manager) directly influences, or personally affects, a subordinate.³ The difference being that a manager has an indirect influence on subordinates, while a leader has a direct influence on them. Military leadership is defined as "the process of influencing men in such a manner as to

accomplish the mission."⁴ Therefore, leadership and management are separate processes which are both involved with task accomplishment, but a leader and a manager may not be one in the same. A manager may also be a leader, but a leader is always a manager. A manager is concerned with the task accomplishment and the coordination of resources to insure task accomplishment. A leader, similarly, is concerned with resources and task accomplishment, but moreover, is the individual who directly influences others, through personal relationships, to accomplish the given task. "Ideally, the process of leadership would get the willing cooperation of subordinates through persuasion."⁵ "Willing cooperation" is what developmental leadership strives for.

Developmental leadership refers to a specific leadership style that transcends traditional models of leadership, the most well known being the authoritarian and the democratic leader, and reaches into the people issues that surround leadership and then, necessarily, followership. Historically, leadership has been approached from a task/power basis. Abraham Zaleznik noted that, "Leadership inevitably requires power to influence the thoughts and actions of other people."⁶ The various leadership theories, models, concepts, etc., that have emerged have two major concerns: 1) identifying the job/task that is to be performed, and 2) obtaining sufficient power, in and through the organization, to insure that someone accomplishes that job/task. If an individual could

determine the tasks that needed to be done, and could insure that the working force accomplished those tasks, he was considered a "leader" (obviously, he used whatever power he had to influence the actions of others). In his book Effective Managerial Leadership, James J. Cribbin notes the numerous variations on leader style when he says,

[authorities] . . . have not lacked imagination in conjuring up descriptive terminology for various sorts of leaders. Terms like "democratic," "impoverished," "task-oriented," "manipulative," "psychologically distant," "custodial," "free-rein," "exploitative," "autocratic," "missionary," and "non-directive" fill the literature.⁷

It seems that for every decision that has ever been made, someone has developed a leadership style which is reflective of the degree in which the leader involved subordinates in the decision-making process. Cribbin sums them all up by saying,

The qualities that the manager [leader] possesses or lacks are not nearly so important as his understanding of what kinds of behavior and which characteristics are likely to attract or alienate the work force.⁸

This is just another commendation for the situational approach to leadership that roughly states that the leader should consider the characteristics of the group of workers, the task at hand, and his own preferred style and adapt as necessary; be a flexible leader because "leadership is situational." While the importance and relevance of this statement cannot be refuted or underestimated, it still leaves something to be desired. It has not gone beyond getting workers to comply.

In effect, it shows that by understanding group dynamics, an individual in a position of power can easily influence people to do what is needed at that particular time. Fiedler's widely acclaimed contingency model for leadership effectiveness is merely a situational approach to leadership; however, as Jeffrey Pfeffer says,

Fiedler (1965), noting how hard it was to change leadership styles, suggested changing the conditions of the situation rather than the person; but this was an unusual suggestion in the context of the prevailing literature. Leadership style was something to be selected strategically by the manager, according to the variables of the particular leadership theory.⁹

With "situation" in Fiedler's model being the amount of control and influence an individual has over the group, one would certainly hope that by increasing the situation favorableness a leader would be more effective. Regardless of how it is done, by changing the situation for the leader or by the leader choosing a style commensurate with the situation, the task is still difficult and the approach is still situational. Either a leader has to change style in every new situation and with each different group, or the organization must have an abundance of leaders waiting to be "plugged" into the group where they will be effective. With this type of attitude toward leadership, how can one expect more than compliance if people cannot develop a relationship with their leader? The members also realize that the leader was directed to that particular group because that is where the leader would be most effective in "getting the job done."

The problem with this and other views of leadership is that they are primarily grounded in a power-based metaphor when, in fact, they seldom, if ever, need to be. The methods by which social scientists studied leadership did nothing but enhance this power dilemma. According to Martin Tarcher, leadership studies fall into five categories: those that 1) identify leaders, 2) stress character traits, 3) emphasize that a leadership situation must first arise, 4) are concerned with the different functions to be performed (each calling for its own leader qualities), and 5) stress the manner in which leadership is exercised (the leadership style).¹⁰ All of these research methods actually enhance leadership from a power point of view. However, in almost every organization an individual is a leader by virtue of one's position within that organization. The leader has position power which necessitates little reason to search for methods in which to obtain more power. One is given the power to do the job by the organization, either legally or administratively, or a combination of both. The legal and/or administrative sanctions that the leader is authorized by the organization to employ in the event of nonperformance or deviant behavior afford one the power that is necessary to do the job. This is especially true in the military but applies to nonmilitary organizations as well.

With regard to the military, an officer or a noncommissioned officer, through command, has a "legal basis for exercise of the broad activities of leadership and management

. . . [which] is derived from the position to which he is assigned."¹¹ The authority given that person is "the legitimate power of a leader to direct those subordinate to him or to take action within the scope of his position."¹²

When one searches for power in order to insure compliance, that person is not a leader of men at all, but merely a manager. Managers insure that workers comply with organizational standards once they are established.

Leaders and managers differ in their conceptions. Managers tend to view work as an enabling process involving some combination of people and ideas interacting to establish strategies and make decisions. Managers help the process along by a range of skills, including calculating the interests in opposition, staging and timing the controversial issues, and reducing tensions. In this enabling process, managers appear flexible in the use of tactics: they negotiate and bargain, on the one hand, and use rewards and punishments, and other forms of coercion, on the other.¹³

A leader is a manager that has the ability to go beyond this process. Leaders realize they have the power to insure compliance with standards, so they only use that power as a last resort, as when other methods of persuasion fail or if time is a critical factor. A leader has a vision of another way, a better way; a way to be certain that the tasks are always done, with or without his presence. Leaders are interested with more than the acquisition of skills for their subordinates; they are concerned with developing attitudes and values in those that they work with. This is what developmental leadership is all about. It is the ability to take certain individuals beyond a mere compliance state of

existence and have them begin to identify with, and even internalize, the tasks that they are to perform. Developmental leadership cannot be included in the traditional leadership styles identified by Cribbin. It is a distinct leadership style which conveys a positive attitude towards people and transcends all leadership styles grounded principally in a power-based metaphor. A developmental leadership style shows concern and respect for others. It is a method by which a leader can bring about what would otherwise be undeveloped, and probably unrecognized, potentialities in many subordinates. It becomes an attitude of leadership which is primarily stressed during interpersonal relationships and encounters. As such, developmental leadership is most effective when used in conjunction with the existing leadership style that the individual is most comfortable with. This is because most leadership styles, along with being power based, are also viewed in the context of mass leadership (the ability of one individual to influence the actions of many, at various levels with different tasks, to insure a common or underlying organizational goal is met). Developmental leadership, by its very nature, is limited to dyadic or, perhaps, small group contexts.

The focus of this research and development (R&D) project is to elucidate the concept of developmental leadership and offer a general training program which conveys the attitude of a developmental leadership approach to human resource

development. The project will identify some specific behaviors of a developmentally oriented leader and show where and how these behaviors could best be used in some primary leadership functions. It will highlight the leadership process from a communication perspective which should prove valuable to any organization.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In an effort to insure that a thorough search of the literature pertaining to leadership was undertaken, two computer searches of the subject area were conducted in June, 1982. In all, three data bases were searched using the facilities of the Memorial Library located at the University of Wisconsin-Madison campus. Searches of the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), Dissertation Abstracts (DISS), and the Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) were conducted with the help of a trained professional reference librarian. The ERIC data base searches over 400,000 educational documents and journal articles that it has processed since 1966, which include articles from over 780 educational journals. The search includes entries made in publications of both Resources in Education (RIE) and Current Index to Journals in Education (CIJE).¹⁴

The ERIC data base was selected for use because of the direct relationship the educational field has with the concept of developmental leadership. Developmental leadership is

derived from a method of teaching and learning (education) that deliberately addresses subsequent levels of learning past that which is only skills related; the affective levels dealing with attitudes and values. Martin Tarcher notes the importance of skill training when it is coupled with values and ideas. He warns that if educators become merely trainers and do not concern themselves with attitudes and values, they add to the alienation of leaders and groups rather than to the quest for commitment.¹⁵

The Social Sciences Citation Index data base search is an international multi-disciplinary search of journals since 1972. SSCI indexes over 1,500 prominent social sciences journals and makes selections for indexing from over 3,000 additional sources.¹⁶ Since leadership crosses many lines, and it is explored in many different fields, SSCI was an obvious selection. The manner in which the data bases were searched is discussed below.

Since the effectiveness of leadership training programs and their ability to train leaders was in question, the terms leadership and effectiveness were used as descriptors when searching the ERIC data base. Fred E. Fiedler, while promoting the use of his contingency model, says that, "No one has established a consistent, direct correlation between the amount or type of a leader's training and the performance of the group he leads."¹⁷ He then goes on to say that a leader will influence and control the group he leads more effectively

if there is a proper match between the leader and the situation.¹⁸ (The assumption here is that an individual in the leadership position has the ability to alter his style after he "correctly" assesses the situation.)

The ERIC search not only includes a search of the title, but a search of the abstract as well. Along with leadership as a descriptor, the computer searched for the following terms that were directly applicable to the focus of this research and development project: leadership-training and leadership-styles. Additionally, since in developmental leadership one individual, the supervisor, guides another, the subordinate, through the decision making process by controlling the process itself, the descriptors developmental and process used adjacent to the descriptor leadership were searched for by the computer. This resulted in a first line computer entry for ERIC as follows:

((PROCESS DEVELOPMENTAL) ADJ LEADERSHIP)

LEADERSHIP. MJ. LEADERSHIP-TRAINING LEADERSHIP-STYLES

The descriptor effectiveness was found in the Thesaurus of ERIC Descriptors to be included with "counseling" as the descriptor counseling effectiveness. Since the concept of developmental leadership has tremendous application in counseling, this qualification to the term "effectiveness" was not seen as a limitation but rather an asset in that it narrowed the focus of the search in an extremely complementary fashion. Therefore, the descriptors counseling-

effectiveness and counseling techniques were used for the search. In an effort to insure that nothing was overlooked in the search by using the descriptors above, one more precaution was taken. Since the term "effectiveness" may appear in other forms, the computer was programmed to search for the terms effective and ineffective with up to four additional letters attached as a suffix. The resulting computer terms were "effective\$4" and "ineffective\$4". Entry 2 for ERIC was:

COUNSELING-EFFECTIVENESS COUNSELING-TECHNIQUES
EFFECTIVE\$4.TI. INEFFECTIVE\$4.TI.

COMMUNICATION SKILLS was entered as line three for the ERIC search in order to further qualify the articles that would be reported because this project is concerned with viewing leadership and leadership training from, and through, a communication perspective. After all, leadership is a function of communication; the communication involved with teaching (at any level of learning), giving instructions, counseling, controlling and disseminating information, listening, etc.; and developmental leadership, by concept and method, requires that an individual be an effective interpersonal communicator of the same.

The ability of the leader to influence the group is basic to leadership. The role of communication in leadership becomes obvious when we realize it is only through communication that the leader is able to exert this influence. Without communication there can be no leadership.¹⁹

Therefore, leadership effectiveness is a direct reflection of one's effectiveness as a communicator.²⁰

The resulting number of entries from the computer search of the ERIC data base is as follows:

- combination of leadership and counseling = 117
- combination of leadership and communication = 59
- combination of leadership and counseling/communication = 172*

The results indicate that, in almost all previous studies recorded by the ERIC data base, leadership was studied in regard to counseling effectiveness or communication skills but rarely both (only four times).

The computer entries for both of the other data bases searched (DISS and SSCI) needed moderate revision due to the fact that these data bases do not use "descriptors" as ERIC does. Key terms are searched for in the title of an article, paper, or study. As such, the computer entries for both data bases were as follows:

- 1) LEADERSHIP. TI.
- 2) (COMMUNICATION EFFECTIVE\$4 TRAINING INEFFECTIVE\$4 TECHNIQUE\$1 STYLE\$1). TI.

The same method as was developed in the search of ERIC was followed; that of taking precautions to insure that every form of a key term would be searched for and reported by the computer. The results were that there were 475 entries in Dissertation Abstracts (from 1961 to June, 1982) and 149 entries in SSCI (from 1972 to June, 1982) when computer

*The result was actually 174 entries; however, two entries were duplicated in RIE and CIJE.

entries one and two were crossed. Since leadership has been historically viewed from a power basis, and the concept of developmental leadership is relatively new, only the most recent 200 dissertations were selected for review. Of the 200 dissertations reviewed, none were from the field of communication. However, over seventy percent (70%) were from the field of education. This further emphasizes the important relationship that developmental leadership has to learning and establishes ERIC as a critical data base.

Since this study is only concerned with the concept of leadership as it has been addressed in the area of speech communication, the findings below only address that field. The summaries are confined to products that appear in speech communication journals or were presented at professional associations, etc. All other material used was for background purposes. The findings below are listed in chronological order.

Findings (critical review of literature)

Fadely, L. Dean, and Fadely, Patricia R. Leadership Styles: An Experimental Study to Determine the Comparative Effectiveness of Democratic and Autocratic Leadership in Adult, "Real World" Groups. Arlington, Va.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 067720, 1972.

Trained researchers acted as either autocratic or democratic discussion leaders for eight tenant council groups. The results indicated that the authoritarian group leaders fostered greater productivity and commitment to policy proposals than the democratically lead groups.

Downs, Cal W. "The Impact of Laboratory Training on Leadership Orientation, Values, and Self-Image." Speech Teacher 23 (September 1974):197-205.

The study was undertaken to provide some empirical data on the effectiveness of the popular "laboratory training technique" used in training people to be effective leaders and communicators. General findings indicate that the technique has impact on leadership orientation but other methods may be equally satisfactory and that the technique does not greatly affect one's self-image or values.

Identifying and Utilizing Management Resources Effectively.
Leavenworth: A Report on the Region 9 AECT Third Annual
Leadership Conference. Introduction by William D.
 Schmidt. Arlington Va.: ERIC Document Reproduction
 Service, ED 135368, 1976.

This paper is a report on a conference for media personnel concerned with identifying and describing management problems, determining the process for selecting a manager, and determining the nature of a healthy organization.

Rosenfeld, Lawrence B., and Fowler, Gene D. "Personality, Sex, and Leadership Style." Communication Monograph 43 (November 1976):320-324.

The purpose of the study was to isolate differentiating variables that were predictive of autocratic or democratic leadership styles for males and females. The study produced data which was valuable in recognizing traits of autocratic and democratic males and females which could be used to predict behavior.

Book, Cassandra L. "Student Leadership Improvement Through Communication Skills." Communication Education 26 (September 1977):237-240.

The article summarizes how one can use students as teacher assistants and facilitators to insure that the effective teacher strategy of small-group instruction is maintained in large and over-crowded classrooms. The TA would be taught basic leadership skills and interpersonal communication skills to insure his effectiveness.

Nyman, Sheldon J., and Ohlendorf, Dawn. Serving Those Seeking Personal Growth: A Rationale and Model for Leadership Training and Laboratory Groups in the Community Colleges. Arlington, Va.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 15446, 1977.

The demand for interpersonal skills training at the college level was so great that the faculty needed to develop a method for providing a suitable learning experience for all participants in the class. This was done by teaching select

students interpersonal skills and leadership skills and having them act as group facilitators in laboratory type training sessions. Some interpersonal communication competencies for leaders are identified.

Sneider, Michael J. Perspectives on Symbolic Leadership and Political Fragmentation in Sub-Saharan Africa. Arlington, Va.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 162359, 1977.

The author explains that symbolic (charismatic) leadership plays a vital role in the emerging nations in sub-Saharan Africa because of the difficulty of achieving and maintaining political legitimacy. He states that communication is paramount to maintaining charisma and compares, as evidence, leaders who maintained charismatic appeal with their people to a leader who lost it.

Furlong, Frank; Kerns, Mary; and Rogers, Maggie (eds.). Leadership at Leavenworth. Arlington, Va.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 171317, 1978.

This paper is a report on a leadership workshop which was intended to identify leadership styles, identify and practice effective communication skills, identify and seek solutions to organizational problems, and apply learning to practical settings.

Kanaga, Kim. The Evaluation of a Training Program for Undergraduate Assistants. Arlington, Va.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 175824, 1979.

A study was done to determine the effectiveness of a leadership training program for teaching assistants by contrasting trained teaching assistant groups' classroom performance with that of untrained ones. The results indicate that the trained assistants were more effective. The study also indicated that the experiential learning technique is especially advantageous in the field of communication.

Singleton, George, and Anderson, Peter A. The Measurement of Political Opinion Leadership. Arlington, Va.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 206022, 1980.

The author developed and tested an instrument to measure political opinion leadership. He notes the importance of political opinion leaders in giving political advice and influencing society.

Leonard, Rebecca. Managerial Styles in Academe: Do Men and Women Differ? Arlington, Va.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 199794, 1981.

The study was done to compare and contrast the communication styles of males and females in similar administrative job positions at a university campus. Little difference was found. Women showed they were skillful at traditional male organizational behaviors and both recognized necessary skills in relating to and communicating with others.

McCroskey, James C.; Richmond, Virginia P.; and Davis, Leonard M. Individual Differences Among Employees' Management Communication Style and Employee Satisfaction: Replication and Extension. Arlington, Va.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 202052, 1981.

This study replicated previous studies concerned with determining employee satisfaction and its relationship to manager's behavior and communication style. The study indicated that management's behavior and communication style had an effect on employee satisfaction.

Summary and Implications

As can be seen from the summary of findings, nothing in the area of speech communication has yet been done on developing a training program designed for leaders which concentrates on the affective learning domain in a self-reflexive manner. This program is designed to effect first order change in leader behaviors which, in turn, will effect second order change in subordinates with the common goal of producing organizational commitment in both.

The studies presented are helpful in that they show that various teaching methods must be utilized (Downs, 1974), they identify needed interpersonal communication skills for leaders (Furlong, Kerns and Rogers, 1979), they stress the importance of facilitator's communication tools (Nyman and Ohlendorf, 1978), they illustrate the tremendous importance of symbolic leadership through communication (Sneider, 1979), and illus-

trate the advantage of experiential learning techniques in communication training (Kanaga, 1979).

METHODOLOGY

Fundamentals

The manner in which this research and development project will be presented follows current training and development doctrine of learning theory and methods of instructional presentation. It is built on the conceptual basis of human resource development as presented by Leonard Nadler. According to Nadler, the area of human resource development (HRD) is only one function of a human resource management (HRM) program. The others are human resource utilization (HRU) and human resource environment (HRE). HRD concerns itself with providing learning experiences for the personnel involved in the program.²¹ He says that HRD means "those learning experiences which are organized, for a specified time, and designated to bring about the possibility of behavioral change."²² The importance of this lies in the fact that no program can guarantee success (i.e., behavioral change), but the likelihood of success can be increased if the appropriate methods of instruction are utilized which affect the particular domain of learning that is in question. The unique thing about military leaders is that each leader has responsibilities in all three functions of the HRM program (those of HRD, HRU, and HRE). The breakdown of the specific duties of each functional area are listed below.²³

<u>HRD</u>	<u>HRU</u>	<u>HRE</u>
Training	Recruitment	Job Enrichment
Education	Selection	Job Enlargement
Development	Placement	Organizational
	Appraisal	Development
	Compensation	
	Workforce Planning	

As in every organization, specialists handle the duties of each functional area. However, the military leader, at a minimum, is responsible to his subordinates for training, education, development, appraisal, and job enrichment and job enlargement. This broad range of responsibilities makes the concept of developmental leadership particularly beneficial to the military. The military leader, especially, has a responsibility for the overall development of subordinates that goes beyond simply equipping them, through training, with the skills needed to do their jobs. The leader must instill confidence, attitudes, values; knowledge of the organization; a sense of belonging, teamwork, and sacrifice for a cause in order to be able to count on him in war, with or without the presence of the leader(s). The training program in Chapter III will do just that: it will instruct the leaders on methods (behaviors) to develop subordinates, through communication, to a point where they begin to identify or even internalize the tasks they are to perform. It will be a method of getting involvement, then commitment from subordinates which will increase the possibility of behavioral change. Below is an illustration of the HRD functions compared to the social involvement of subordinates

and the separate domains of learning.

<u>HRD Function</u>	<u>Learning Domain</u>	<u>Social Involvement</u>
Training	= Psychomotor (skills)	= Compliance
Education	= Knowledge (cognitive)	= Identification
Development	= Affective (values and attitudes)	= Internalization

The obvious goal is to strive for development which includes the social involvement achieved in training and education. In this manner compliance will almost always be guaranteed, but the possibility of achieving identification and internalization is increased. A critical area where this can be accomplished will be in performance appraisal and counseling.

Program Development

The intent of the training program is to bring about a structured learning experience increasing the likelihood that learning will take place and effect some change. Outlined below are the steps that will be taken and the considerations given to development of the actual training modules.

1) Communication Audit. A survey of a leadership training program(s) for leaders will be conducted to determine what is currently being taught at the United States Infantry School in the area of communication. The goals and objectives will be previewed to establish the methods, scope and content of existing training programs. Findings are discussed in Appendix A.

2) Needs Analysis/Assessment. Any needs assessment can fulfill one or both of its two major functions, depending on the method followed in determining the needs. The first function is to provide information on subject matter that potential learners will find interesting or rewarding. The method is to simply survey prospective clients and ask them what they want and need in a training program. The second function of a needs assessment is to provide a basis from which to plan instruction based on the personal needs of the trainees and the needs of the organization to which the trainees belong. This is the function that the needs analysis of this training program will be concerned with. The analysis will be accomplished by a subjective-prescriptive method. The needs will be determined through personal knowledge and experience of the organization and jobs (thus subjective rather than objective), and the learning needs will be decided on by someone other than the learner (thus prescriptive rather than descriptive).²⁴

Additionally, a task list for lieutenants was obtained from Major Williams in the Leadership Department at the United States Army Infantry School at Fort Benning, Georgia, which will provide some insight appropriate for an accurate needs assessment. Appendix B contains a list of the communication training needs for leaders that will aid in the overall development of subordinates.

3) Goals and Objectives. The training goals are derived from the needs analysis and relate the training to be accomplished to the actual program by describing what training will occur. The behavioral objective is a statement of the actual change in skill, knowledge or attitude that will occur in the trainee as a result of the training session. It is a specific change related to the training goal.²⁵ It is important to remember that the task involved with a developmental leadership training package is a complex one in that the program is a "train the trainer" type that involves equipping the trainer with the tools to effect a behavioral change in his subordinates. The immediate goal is to effect behavioral change in the leader's manner of dealing with his subordinates which, in turn, will effect behavioral change in the subordinate's behavior and organizational commitment. Another difficulty arises in the fact that the changes in both parties are attitudinal, which encompass the most difficult learning experiences to present. Leaders must identify their concept of the qualities of mankind and determine if their behaviors are consistent with their attitudes. Then they must use the skills they develop before their subordinates can demonstrate they identify with the organization and its goals. Appendix C contains the goals and objectives of the training modules.

4) Teaching Plan. The focus of the program deals with attitude change, in the leader and subordinates, so some

knowledge of attitude change theory is required by the instructor. As a prerequisite, the instructor cadre should be well versed in this field. Studies have shown that a person should be able to see, feel, and experience the new attitudes in a non-threatening environment if change is desired. The use of small, informal, open-ended discussion groups is deal.²⁶ Suggested methods would then include a variety of case studies, consultation, critical incidents, demonstrations, role playing, simulation, and structured experiences.²⁷ These types of learning experiences are especially useful in human resource development and the teaching of leader skills. Martin McIntyre notes that leadership skills are related to personality and, as such, the best method to learn these skills is on the job and not in a classroom.²⁸ That is an ideal situation which one can seldom enjoy, and one in which organizations might be hesitant to allow. Therefore, the use of structured experiences that require role playing, demonstrations, simulations, etc., is as close to an on-the-job training program as an instructor can get. The learning experiences should be such that the leaders could later duplicate the goals and objectives of the activities, and the activities themselves, with their subordinates. The program in Chapter III is intended to convey an attitude about people and leadership. It is, therefore, general in nature. Each of the six sections should be supplemented depending on the level of the trainees' experience.

5) Format. The format used to illustrate the preparation of instruction will be that which was presented by Dr. Kenneth R. Williams in a Training and Development Seminar at the University of Wisconsin-Stevens Point. Dr. Williams utilized the Academic Instructor School package from the Air Force Instructor School at Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama. The format is modified somewhat because this program is a general program which would need to be supplemented with material by the actual instructor or facilitator.

Index

Chapter II of the thesis is a conceptual overview of the concept of developmental leadership and what it entails. The concept is grounded in a philosophy of humanness as presented by Susanne Langer and stems from some assumptions about mankind she identifies, thus providing a basis and need for a new concept of leadership that grows out of a communication perspective.

Chapter III contains the training program design and directs the trainer to useful additional reference material.

Chapter IV is a summary of developmental leadership which includes implications for leadership in the future. It will highlight the importance of a developmental style of leadership for the 80's that stresses interpersonal relations which generate more than compliance; it fosters commitment.

ENDNOTES

¹This paragraph is a summary of material contained in U.S. Department of the Army, Military Leadership: FM22-100 (U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973), pp. 1-2,3.

²Ibid, p. 1-3.

³Ibid., p. 1-2. Information obtained from diagram.

⁴Ibid., p. 1-3.

⁵Ibid.

⁶Abraham Zaleznik, "Managers and Leaders: Are They Different?" in Intercom: Readings in Organizational Communication, eds. Stewart Ferguson and Sherry Devereaux Ferguson (Rochelle Park, NJ: Hayden Book Company, Inc., 1980), p. 168.

⁷James J. Cribbin, Effective Managerial Leadership (New York: American Management Association, 1972), p. 18.

⁸Ibid., p. 31.

⁹Jeffrey Pfeffer, "The Ambiguity of Leadership," in Leadership: Where Else Can We Go? eds. Morgan W. McCall, Jr. and Michael M. Lombardo (Durham, NC: Duke University Press, 1978), pp. 19-20.

¹⁰Martin Tarcher, Leadership and the Power of Ideas (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, Inc., 1966), pp. 19-20.

¹¹Military Leadership: FM22-100, p. 1-1.

¹²Ibid.

¹³Zaleznik, p. 172.

¹⁴The source of this information is two information pamphlets provided by the Educational Resources Information Center.

¹⁵Tarcher, p. 22.

¹⁶The source of this information is an information sheet provided by the Institute for Scientific Information.

¹⁷Fred E. Fiedler, "The Trouble With Leadership Training Is That It Doesn't Train Leaders," in Communication in Organizations, eds. James L. Owen, Paul A. Page, and Gordon I. Zimmerman (St. Paul: West Publishing Co., 1976), p. 197.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 205.

¹⁹Naval Academy, Annapolis, Md., Introduction to Psychology and Leadership. Part Four: Achieving Effective Communication. Segments I, II, III and IV, Volume IV-A. (Arlington, Va.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 071285, 1971), p. 9.

²⁰Ibid., p. 8.

²¹Leonard Nadler, Corporate Human Resources Development: A Management Tool (New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Company, 1980; and Madison, Wisconsin: American Society for Training and Development, 1980), p. 2.

²²Ibid., p. 5.

²³Ibid., p. 2. Breakdown of functions as presented in Nadler's Figure 1-1.

²⁴This paragraph is a summary of material taken from Philip D. Langerman and Douglas H. Smith, eds. Managing Adult and Continuing Education Programs and Staff (Arlington, Va.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 181298, 1979), pp. 96-107.

²⁵A summary of information in Ann R. Bauman, Training of Trainers, ed. Normandie W. Kamar (Arlington, Va.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 170638, 1977), pp. 171-172.

²⁶Ibid., p. 271.

²⁷Ibid., pp. 25-1-262. Source lists 34 teaching methods of which these have been selected because they meet stated criteria.

²⁸Martin McIntyre, "Leadership Development," Quest 33 (1981):37.

CHAPTER II

DEVELOPMENTAL LEADERSHIP: ACHIEVING COMPLIANCE THROUGH COMMITMENT

Traditional leadership, based as it is upon authority and power, has often restrained the individual through submission to that authority, and consequently has failed to release all the creative and constructive forces within the individual.¹

The concept of developmental leadership, when used properly, attempts to balance or eliminate these negative effects of traditional leadership styles. This is because a developmental approach to leadership is based on a helping attitude which attempts to involve subordinates, not alienate or restrain them. The goal is to reduce "hostility, fear, distrust and similar attitudes [which] tend not only to reduce the flow and acceptance of ideas, but also to evoke motives to distort communications . . ."² Developmental leaders strive to insure that subordinates are included in every facet of the organization when possible. As such, developmental leadership is the cutting edge of leadership.³ It is what real leadership is all about--namely, leading people, not things. The key ingredient to understanding and successfully utilizing developmental leadership is realizing the adverse effects on people which result from an abusive use of power. Anyone can lead "things" or tasks, but a

leader of people has a special quality about him that allows him to enter into and become a part of another's world.

Traditional leadership approaches recognize the positive effects that power has on leading many individuals through a crisis situation; but what effect does it have when the crisis is over? James MacGregor Burns notes that ". . . power is a relationship among persons."⁴ The relationship in an emergency or crisis is probably based on a need to feel safe or secure. Without direction, one looks to someone who is providing guidance or direction. To make a blanket assertion that this is leadership is really an injustice to the concept of leadership. It may or may not have been so. The intended use of power becomes one determining factor.

A mass of people wandering senselessly about in fear can be compared to a herd of cattle. In this respect one may be leading "things" not people. However, a leader of people in this situation would realize that the goal of the group is safety or security and that to provide direction to the group would be to satisfy their immediate need. The intended use of power is in an effort to obtain a helping relationship and achieve the perceived needs of the people. Burns notes that leadership is a part of power, but it has its own purpose; that of satisfying the motives of others. Power is what one has with people and people have motives. Leadership is a type of power that recognizes the motives of people and attempts to assist those individuals in satisfying their

motives.⁵ This perspective on power is also what distinguishes managers from leaders. Managers are concerned with "things" and tasks. To a manager, people are merely things that help to get the job done; in a sense, a tool. Managers wield power in order to insure that their "things" do what is required of them. A person who is a leader has power (does not search for it) from those he leads. Thus management and leadership are not terms to be used interchangeably as has been done in the past. This practice only clouds the issue.

In essence, leadership is a broader concept than management. Management is thought of as a special kind of leadership in which the accomplishment of organizational goals is paramount. While leadership also involves working with and through people to accomplish goals, these goals are not necessarily organizational goals.⁶

"In a sense, then, the title to manage others is a gift of the higher echelons, but the title to lead others is a gift of the followers."⁷

The concept of developmental leadership similarly distinguishes between managers and leaders but goes beyond and takes the attributes of the "gift of the people" and resurfaces it in a "gift in the people." The leader concentrates his abilities to influence in such a manner as to achieve not only the behaviors desired but also the corresponding mental framework and attitudes. Developmental leadership is an attitude of a leader where, through behaviors, the leader develops and molds the followers as not only individual, but organizational beings. Where Hershey and Blanchard have

been cited earlier to infer that the leader helps people accomplish goals (not always organizational goals), some qualifications must be made. This study focuses on organizational leadership and the primary aim of a developmental leader is to match or align organizational goals with personal goals. The developmental leader must match the roles, expectations, and values of the organization to the individual subordinate's personal identity and capacities in order to insure individual growth within the organization.⁸ If done properly, helping a person achieve personal objectives can and should help the organization meet organizational objectives. Properly aligned, the organizational and personal goals are complementary, and one can expect a more satisfied worker. It only follows that better performance should be the result.

The concept of developmental leadership is relationship oriented even more so than any conventional view of leadership (authoritarian, democratic, situational, etc.). Cribbin says that leadership is more a function of relationships, or interaction between leader and follower(s), than it is a function of status or authority.⁹ In order to achieve the goal of developmental leadership, that of molding an individual to a point where organizational tasks are internalized, the quality of the relationship is critical. The developmental leader deliberately attempts to get subordinates beyond compliance to a point where they begin to identify

with and, hopefully, internalize their task and their job. This leadership method attempts to involve subordinates in the organization so they will begin to establish ownership for their actions and be responsible for, and to, the organization. This can only be attempted if the leader-subordinate relationship is one of mutual respect and trust.

Relationships are always changing and evolve with every contact between individuals, whether the contact is visual or not, written or spoken, or simply eye contact, etc. However, the only way for the relationship to progress is if the parties to the relationship keep an open mind about it. This implies some assumptions or assertions be made about mankind. These assumptions develop out of the process of "becoming" a helper. Becoming a helper portrays an attitude about people. It is not learning gimmicks with which to manipulate people. It is identifying human potential and finding ways to develop it. One does not learn how to lead, but "becomes" a leader.¹⁰ The difference is the difference between attitudes and behaviors. Becoming a leader is attitudinal while learning how to lead is behavioral. Granted a leader must behave in certain ways, but the motives for the behavior are what is important. The helping behaviors must be learned, but they should be learned with the appropriate attitude or they become gimmicks used in the manipulation of people.

Any study of leadership is also a study of followership. The manner in which man is depicted has much to say about the

manner in which leadership will be viewed. McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y assumptions about human nature are really just two sets of observed behaviors in a wide range of possible behaviors. Theory X and Theory Y assumptions can be viewed as polar extremes on a continuum of behaviors where, for every point on the continuum, a different leadership style would be most appropriate, ranging from authoritarian (with Theory X) to permissive (with Theory Y) with varying degrees of democratic between these extremes. Advocates of a situational leadership approach really place an individual in a tenuous position. How can a leader function (demonstrate behaviors) in each of the various positions and be consistent within himself? The answer has already been discussed. It is because a situational leadership approach looks at behaviors of the leader, not the leader's attitude towards people. A situational approach to leadership is more a tool of management than it is true leadership in itself. Hershey and Blanchard note that the attitudinal and behavioral models of leadership are not incompatible in themselves. It is only when behavioral assumptions are drawn from attitudinal models or attitudinal assumptions are drawn from the behavioral models that a conflict exists.¹¹ The attitude of the leader towards the subordinate is the determining factor and key difference between leadership and management. One becomes a leader when an attitude set is established and reflected in behaviors. Combs and Avila, in Helping Relations: Basic

Concepts for Helping Professions, state that, ". . . our own behavior is an expression of our beliefs."¹² They go on to cite Carl Rogers by saying,

In an article on the nature of the helping relationship, Carl Rogers once observed that it didn't seem to make much difference how the leader behaved so long as his 'intent' (purpose) was to be helpful.¹³

Effective helpers have extensive, accurate, and internally consistent personal beliefs that guide their behavior.¹⁴ Therefore, a behavioral approach to leadership is a management tool only if the individual does not have consistent personal beliefs that match the behaviors. Any leader who is also a developmental leader can function well with success all along the continuum of behaviors because of an understanding of human nature and a helping attitude toward people. The leader who is inclined to develop his subordinates realizes one basic truth about human behavior; all human behavior is goal oriented. Hershey and Blanchard state that, "Behavior is basically goal oriented. In other words, our behavior is generally motivated by a desire to attain some goal."¹⁵ Human wants, needs, etc., become motives which determine behaviors in accordance with the desired goal.¹⁶ The goal need not always be attained or even attainable by the set of behaviors the individual selects, but the important point is that the individual believes that by acting in a prescribed manner the desired result will be attained.¹⁷ To a leader who is developmentally oriented, this fact has great application in

predicting and controlling human behavior is critical. As open, sincere and honest as a leader wants to be in his relationship, he sometimes may appear not to be. The subordinate may feel disconfirmed, but the leader must realize that his job is to meet concurrently the needs of the individual and those of the organization. To develop an individual into an "organization man" is not to create a "yes man" but to create an individual with similar values as those present in the organization, whatever they are. Values are relative, not absolute. They change from society to society and within societies. Developmental leadership recognizes that values change and keeps individuals tuned to the movements within the organization. Predicting and controlling human behaviors is critical in this respect. Control does not mean a disregard for individuality or concern for others. It may in fact be the only method of demonstrating concern. The motive for predicting and controlling behavior is critical.

If all human behavior is goal oriented, then this implies something about motivation. Motivation is not something a leader can do to, or give to, another person. One cannot motivate another to perform, per se. However, if it is possible to identify the motives of an individual and create a situation which insures that another's motives are satisfied, the leader can simultaneously insure the satisfaction of organizational needs as well. The concern of the leader should not be motivating others but providing and

creating a motivating environment that will help to align the individual motives of subordinates with the organizational goals and objectives.¹⁸

Take, for instance, Maslow's hierarchy of human needs. If one subscribes to Maslow's motivational theory, then all a leader has to do is insure that, whatever level an individual is operating from (be it physiological, safety, social, esteem, or self-actualization), the needs derived from that level are satisfied and he can better insure a productive worker. The common sayings like "Nothing succeeds like success," or "Success motivates," are not absolutely accurate. Success only motivates if success is a desired goal of the individual. If that is the case, the leader needs only to find ways in which the individual achieves success or perceives he has achieved it and the individual, the organization and the leader will be better off as a result. The individual has obviously met his personal objective, the organization benefits from the positive aspects of the individual's success (loyalty, productivity, etc.) because the individual feels that the organization allowed him the opportunity to succeed, and the leader benefits from a strengthened relationship that will require less time to reestablish and maintain in the future. The leader's motive was not to control but to help, and yet helping allowed him to predict and control where necessary. The leader achieved both position power and personal power which

Amitai Etzioni says is the best situation for a leader to be in.¹⁹ For a leader to maintain his position in the future, he may need to do little else but be visible to that subordinate. Much of what has been studied in leadership that refers to leadership traits or characteristics can be viewed as leadership maintenance functions. Once real leadership has been established, key traits or characteristics that are commonly associated with leaders can continue an individual's personal power or referent power. However, as an approach to leadership in itself, it seems ridiculous to believe that these qualities alone can lead anyone.

David Brown, in his book Leader Vitality: A Workbook for Academic Administrators, suggests that leaders need guiding principles by which decisions can be made. He says that having guiding principles by which decisions are made lends integrity to those decisions. In addition, two other ingredients are needed to insure effective decision making besides merely having guiding principles. Leaders must also know the principles and articulate them to their subordinates. Some principles may be directives from superiors and leaders must not only develop their own principles but implement those of others in the organization. Knowing the principle means a consistent use of it and a smoother flow of decisions. Articulating the principles to subordinates allows the subordinates to make decisions which they have been delegated to make equally consistent with the principle. The feedback

to the subordinate is more positive and they feel that they have contributed to the organization in a positive manner and share some responsibility for the decision making and subsequent implementation. To have guiding principles then becomes a formula for productivity; productivity resulting from subordinate involvement in the process and support of the final decision.²⁰ The formula is:

To have guiding principles lends integrity to decisions; the integrity of decisions = consistency in decision-making; consistency of decisions lends credibility to decisions; and credibility of decisions = productivity and better followership.

Brown's suggested use of guiding principles by leaders can be seen as leaders developing some type of standard procedures by which the organization and all its sub-elements will operate. They are external mechanisms or forces which guide the organization and are specific to that organization, hence the principles are not elaborated on. However, internal guiding principles can be elaborated on. These are principles from which the leader develops his philosophy of mankind, or humanness, which guides his actions when dealing with subordinates. Although each individual is unique, it is the mix of these internal principles that makes each one unique. These principles have been discussed by Susanne Langer while presenting her philosophy of mind; that which differentiates or sets man apart from other animals. Langer contends, as

do others, that man is predominately a symbol using animal. The use of symbols, or symbolic representation, is more powerful than the act it portrays; the symbols carry more meaning than the event. The most sophisticated form of symbolic representation is language, maybe because words carry so much meaning. Words carry literal meaning, figurative meaning, double meaning, represent different concepts in different cultures, and are the sum of not only the sender's experience but that of the receiver as well. Simply stated, a word can have different meaning to different people. If people cannot express themselves, then they cannot do what they intend to do or have done. To a leader this means that he must be careful in his choice of words, explicit in his directions, and somehow insure that when he says "dog" everyone thinks of a miniature wire-haired dachshund, and not a Great Dane or a springer spaniel. Although the fact that man is a symbol user might not be classified as a guiding principle as such, it is still an important realization of the nature of man that a leader must concern himself with.

Langer has also presented the argument that all human behavior is goal oriented. Man is not instinctual and as a result cannot be analyzed by conventional laboratory means. To try to analyze human beings in a stimulus-response environment would be to discredit the power of the human mind and overlook individual achievement. Because of the power of the mind, because man is goal oriented, motivation is internal

and specific. All a leader can hope to do is present a motivating environment. This entails identifying the motives of his subordinates and guiding his behaviors in such a manner as to insure the effects of the behaviors realize the individual's goal. If an individual achieves his goal, or perceives that he achieves it, he will continue to behave in a similar manner at any subsequent attempts to reach the same goal. However, should the goal not be reached, the individual will either alter the set of behaviors or quit in frustration. Obviously, a frustrated worker is not as effective because maximum effort is not spent on the task. A leader who provides a motivating environment is creating a situation that should aid productivity. The subordinates feel responsible to the organization for providing an environment which enabled them an opportunity for success in achieving their goals, whatever they may have been. The leader gains valuable influential potential with the subordinates and enhances his position power and personal or referent power.

Lanager presents two other guiding principles that are always operating within an individual but are mutually exclusive: the principles of "individuation" and "involvement." The principle of individuation stresses the need to present oneself as unique, responsible, in control, separate and alone; in essence, different from all the rest. The principle of involvement demonstrates one's need for support from

others, to belong, be a member of, be responsible to and for others; to be a social being like the rest. To the leader who realizes these principles there is no real dilemma. The procedure is to recognize individual accomplishments and show their worth to the group; to give additional responsibilities to an individual with the support and acknowledgement that he is the only one that can accomplish that task within the prescribed guidelines; to accept and implement the individual's ideas and credit him with his contribution.²¹

The internal guiding principles that a leader develops become his attitude toward people; his philosophy of the worth of humanity. People do not become a means to an end, they are the reason for the end. As such, they have individual and group responsibility to see that the end is achieved. To the leader this means that he must allow people to grow in the organization, be involved in the evolution of the organization, and be a part of the evolution. The leader is not only responsible to and for the organization, but to and for his subordinates as well. The concept of developmental leadership recognizes these responsibilities and not only insures individuals comply with standards set within the organization, but get involved with setting the standards themselves. The individuals develop in such a manner as they reflect inwardly the organization to which they belong.

In a sense, the developmental leader is a manipulator.

He controls the processes by which decisions are made, problems are resolved, etc., in such a way as to allow for the individual successes of his subordinates in their activities. The leader must operate within the framework set forth by his superiors and must insure that his subordinates can achieve their goals within the framework. Therefore, he must manipulate behaviors to some extent. However, his motive cannot be to manipulate and control but to manipulate so that he may one day lessen control. One can be an effective leader, but the effectiveness of his leadership is relative. Leadership effectiveness is determined and judged by the organization and bound by organizational goals.²² The leader's reason for manipulating individuals is to insure that the motivating environment produces successes which will result in increased loyalty to, and growth of the organization and all its members. In this respect, a developmental leader is effective and has leadership effectiveness. The ultimate test for success in both regards for the developmental leadership process is: the job gets done when the leader isn't there!

To compare and contrast a developmental leader with a traditional leader in an effort to establish a role model is difficult. The concept is attitudinal; it requires a specific "humanistic" approach to leadership. None of the leader's tasks are different, his approach to them is what is different. The developmental leader approaches every leadership opportunity with the goal of achieving involvement from the

individuals he is working with. With this approach he can hope for internalization but be assured of compliance. On the following pages are some of the critical tasks of a leader. Below each task is the manner in which a developmental leader would approach it.

Leadership Style:

- identifies own leadership style and analyzes it in terms of gaining desired outcomes in a group environment or crisis situation, but
- develops an interpersonal behavior style that is aimed at creating a motivating environment for subordinates and stresses development of subordinates in terms of training and education to enhance organizational and individual potential

Listening:

- realizes that listening reflects one's attitude of the worth of people
- listens with a "third ear" to hear the real meaning in the words
- watches for nonverbal cues that emphasize the real point being made
- is non-evaluative of what others have to say
- listens to the whole of what is being said; is not a selective listener
- does not try to anticipate the thoughts of others
- tries to "put himself in the other's shoes" and listens empathetically

Giving Instructions:

- issues clear instructions that are consistent with known standards
- if not critical, allows subordinate to establish his own suspense date (time) so he can prioritize his own work schedule
- insures availability of resources is not a roadblock
- builds in a feedback mechanism (such as a progress report) which encourages the individual to set intermediate objectives and not "wait till the last minute"

Counseling:

- makes counseling a part of daily activities and not an "event" in itself
- allows subordinates to evaluate their own behaviors
- stresses the positive aspects of the past and addresses any problems as futuristic concerns of how to improve them

Problem Solving:

- does not accept the problem as given, determines through analysis the real problem by converging on the subordinate and diverging on the problem. This means the leader focuses attention on the individual to determine any underlying problems while generalizing the statement of the problem to uncover as many potential solutions as is possible.

- helps the individual resolve his own problem by having him paraphrase possible solutions, clarify concerns, give feedback, evaluate ideas
- controls the processes involved in identifying the problem, developing ideas, evaluating ideas, getting solution commitment, etc., but does not resolve the problem for the client (subordinate)
- increases the probability of a successful resolution by his methods
- gives the problem and possible resolution back to the subordinate for possible implementation

Decision Making:

- realizes that involvement increases commitment, so requests subordinate input any time the possibility arises.

Developmental leadership is a helping attitude toward people. It is also an attitude about their worth. A developmental leader is concerned about people and maximizes his efforts to help others realize their potential, personally and organizationally. The developmental leader is one who truly leads people, not "things."

Leadership is the activity of helping others work toward common goals or purposes. Today, the experts in leadership are the ones who know how to release the creative talents of those with whom they work. In earlier years, the expert in leadership was considered to be the one who best knew all the answers. Now terminology has changed from "directing and controlling" to "involving and motivating."²³ [provide motivating environments]

The training program in the next chapter will establish the attitude of a developmental leader and provide structured learning experiences where the trainees can try out some behaviors consistent with that attitude.

ENDNOTES

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²Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1961), p. 45.

³This metaphor was taken from John P. Campbell, "The Cutting Edge of Leadership: An Overview," in Leadership: The Cutting Edge, eds. James G. Hunt and Lars L. Larson (Carbondale and Edwardsville: Southern Illinois University Press, 1977), p. 221.

⁴James MacGregor Burns, Leadership (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., 1978), p. 12.

⁵Ibid., p. 18.

⁶Paul Hershey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, 2nd ed. (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972), p. 91.

⁷James J. Cribbin, Effective Managerial Leadership (New York: American Management Association, 1972), p. 9.

⁸This sentence is a summary from Thomas A. Petrie and Inez New Petrie, The Relationship Between Teacher Perception of the Principal's Developmental Leadership Skills and Rated Effectiveness (Arlington, Va.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 189729, 1980), pp. 6-7.

⁹Cribbin, p. 8.

¹⁰This concept of "becoming" was taken from Arthur W. Combs and Donald L. Avila, Helping Relations: Basic Concepts for Helping Professions, 2nd ed. (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1978), p. 13.

¹¹Paul Hershey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, "Leadership Style: Attitudes and Behaviors," Training and Development Journal 36 (May 1982):50.

¹²Combs and Avila, p. 7.

¹³Ibid., citing Carl Rogers, "A Note on the 'Nature of Man'," Journal of Counseling Psychology 4(1957):199-203.

¹⁴Ibid., p. 9.

¹⁵Hershey and Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, p. 9.

¹⁶Ibid., p. 17.

¹⁷Ibid., pp. 15-19. See the discussion on goal versus goal-directed behavior. See also Donald P. Cushman, "The Rules Perspective As a Theoretical Basis for the Study of Human Communication," Communication Quarterly 25 (Winter 1977): p. 35.

¹⁸The preceding sentence is paraphrased from U.S. Department of the Army, Military Leadership: FM 22-100 (U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973), p. 8-3.

¹⁹Hershey and Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, p. 92. Citing Amitai Etzioni, A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations on Power, Involvement and Their Correlates (New York: The Free Press, 1961).

²⁰This paragraph is a summary of David G. Brown, Leadership Vitality: A Workbook for Academic Administrators (Washington, DC: American Council on Education, 1979), p. 5.

²¹The internal guiding principles presented in the preceding chapters were adopted from ideas presented by Susanne K. Langer, Mind: An Essay on Human Feeling, Vols. I and II (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1970 and 1974), Chapters 2, 9, 12, 16, 17, and 18.

²²See the discussion of "successful" leadership acts versus "effective" leadership acts as presented by Fred E. Fiedler, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967), p. 31.

²³Michael C. Giammetteo and Dolores M. Giammetteo, Forces on Leadership (Reston, Va.: The National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1981), p. 2.

CHAPTER III

DEVELOPMENTAL LEADERSHIP: FROM THEORY TO PRACTICE

The intent of this chapter is to identify the attitude inherent in a developmental approach to leadership and supplement and reinforce that attitude with key behaviors of a developmental leader. Emphasis will be in some areas where all leaders could involve their subordinates and achieve the goal of subordinate development. As suggested earlier, the skills are not difficult to learn, nor are the functions different from one leadership approach to another. It is the attitude of the leader towards his subordinates and the leader's concept of what real leadership is that differentiates one from the other. The concept is that it is the leader's job to develop subordinates in such a way that the organizational tasks will still be accomplished even if there is no one there to supervise and direct what is to be done. It is having confidence in a subordinate's ability to perform and giving that individual the opportunity to do so.

This chapter is divided into six sections (I-VI), each identifying a critical area of leadership, and more importantly, how that area can be used to develop subordinates in the manner discussed. Each section is further divided into two parts (A and B). Part A is an introduction to

the area which could be used in a training session to orient the audience to the topic in the form of a lecture or discussion, with some modifications. Part B is a structured learning experience used to reinforce the learning from Part A and allow the trainees to experience attitudes and behaviors under new and different circumstances, gain an understanding for the importance of developing subordinates, and try out some new behaviors that may aid in that process. Part A for each section can be viewed as attitudinal and Part B as behavioral.

The six leadership functions that are discussed in this chapter are: identifying leader/follower style, listening, giving instructions/making corrections, conflict management, creative problem solving/decision making, and counseling. Each of these sections is a general training module which is intended to identify an attitude about that particular function and also suggests some behaviors or skills that a developmental leader would use when dealing with that function. Each of the six modules could stand alone in a human relations training program developed for that specific purpose (i.e., a training program on conflict management, counseling, etc.). However, the modules in this program have been developed in a manner so that each module establishes a primary skill, or prerequisite, for the subsequent module. The attitudes and behaviors identified and used in one module carry into the next module and build

from it.

Additionally, the training program identified in this chapter should be viewed as an extension course, or advanced course, in leadership training. This is not a course for beginners. It is designed for individuals who have held leadership positions in an organization and understand group dynamics. The program offers these individuals an opportunity to reflect on what they have done in the past and offers suggestions on how they may improve in the future. Each section requires supplementary material to make it an effective training session depending on the trainer/facilitator experience, the trainees experiences in leading (i.e., the organizational level of the leaders), the type of organization, etc. The concepts identified in these six sections are broad and general because they need to convey an attitude of leadership which cannot be done in a few hours by practicing one behavior. The trainees must then be able to experience the attitudes in a non-threatening environment which will enable those attitudes to become a part of the trainee's personal set of beliefs. The trainees should also be encouraged to experiment with the behaviors they will learn and apply the whole attitude set in as many situations as possible.

SECTION I (Part A)

Identifying Leader-Follower Style

One of the most important functions an individual placed in a leadership position must perform is a self-analysis. The leader must identify personal preferences in leadership style and followership style. If an individual does not determine how he wants to lead, there's little chance that he will be effective as a leader. The individual will be inconsistent in his behaviors if he does not identify and establish his attitude of leadership.

An effective leader, one with personal power to enhance his position power, is a role model to his subordinates. Once a leader identifies his style and establishes himself as a role model, it is simply a matter of remaining consistent in those behaviors and people should begin to respond favorably. This is because most people can and will adapt to another if the sacrifice is not too great. They can "accept him for what he is" if they think they know what he is. But a leader who is inconsistent in his behaviors will more likely be ineffective because others will be less inclined to know how, when, or if they can approach him.

One method of determining whether attitudes and behaviors are consistent is to conduct a self-analysis using one of a variety of instruments that are available to human relations trainers. A critical self-analysis of leadership

and followership styles should yield some insight into the consistency or inconsistency of behaviors which impact upon the effectiveness of the leader. If the leader is consistent, at least the followers know what they must do to adapt to that leader. However, this is not the goal or purpose of the analysis. Success in this situation is dependent upon another's ability to adapt, not on the self. The goal of a self-analysis is to guarantee success as a leader dependent only upon the self--to establish behaviors consistent with an attitude of leadership.

The identification of preferred styles should reflect the individual's philosophy of the nature of man.

Leadership stands for a particular kind of interpersonal relationship between human beings, and we must have some definite idea about both parties to the relationship--the "follower" as well as the leader. The thesis here is that one's basic philosophy about man as a follower determines in part one's view of man as a leader.¹

The manner in which the leader treats others is reflective of his views of mankind. Similarly, the manner in which he wishes to be treated by his superiors (or the types of leaders that he would follow) should also reflect his philosophy of the nature and value of mankind, referring to himself as the model. Hopefully, the leader's philosophy of the nature and qualities of man is internally consistent; that is, the underlying qualities that contribute to and establish the worth of humanity are similar, at least in his own mind, from a leader and from a follower

point of view. This is the goal of a critical self-analysis; to establish consistency in attitudes and behavior. This decreases the dependence on the ability of others to adapt to the leader to insure the success of the leader.

Once internal consistency is established, the leader has some operating principles from which to guide his actions and establish the credibility of those actions through consistent use of the principles. Moving from his preferred style to another style, momentarily becomes a planned, controlled process as the situation dictates and not a struggle to find a leadership style that works. This is not to say that "leadership is situational." That phrase indicates that a leader's style can be matched to a particular situation with a realistic guarantee of success which is not, and cannot, be true. That would indicate that there were different and equally accurate philosophies of man which cannot be the case. The identified style of a leader is only indicative of his preferred method of dealing with others; where he feels most comfortable. His philosophy gives him the framework from which to operate and the boundary limits of the extent to which his style can flex. This becomes the momentary, planned, controlled process as the situation dictates.

Take, for instance, Maslow's hierarchy of needs as an example. A leader working with an individual at a self-actualization level would operate quite differently from

one with whom he is operating at a physiological levels, but the qualities that make up both individuals are no different, or should not be, at least in the eyes of the leader. The leader's attitude in dealing with both individuals should be the same. However, the leader must grant special attentions to both because of their particular situations and uniqueness as individuals. This is what is "situational" for a leader. Consistency is derived from the attitude of the leader, not always his overt behaviors.

The leader's style may reflect operating principles different from the principles of those he leads, but effectiveness does not have to suffer. Each can accept the other's point of view as to what makes that individual unique and operate effectively within that framework. The real dilemma is when the individual is not consistent in his own actions and attitudes. Not only will there be a struggle within himself to correct that inconsistency, but there will also be a struggle within the group. One cannot trust or support another person if that person is absolutely unpredictable.

Whether the assumptions about the nature of man a leader accepts are those of McGregor's Theory X or Theory Y, or something quite different is not the point. What is important is that a leader has some assumptions about human nature and structures his behavior accordingly. When the leader's actions are consistent with his beliefs, he becomes

an effective role model critical in developing his subordinates. Any role model will be effective. This is true because it is the subordinate's responsibility to determine for himself whether or not to emulate the model. Regardless of choice, subordinate development results.

Whenever an individual has an opportunity to do so, he should reflect upon past behaviors and evaluate his own performance in relation to them. The first step to any behavior modification is an awareness of past and present behaviors. It is critical that a person analyze his behaviors with respect to his goals. An individual must become aware of whether or not his behaviors are reaching his goals. All too often a leader gets caught in the confusion of the organization, resolving crisis after crisis, and never is afforded an opportunity to evaluate himself with respect to his goals and determine if his behaviors are consistent with his attitudes. The use of the self-report instrument which follows will create that opportunity.

ENDNOTES

¹Thomas Gorden, Group Centered Leadership (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1955), p. 23.

SECTION I (Part B)

Supervisory Attitudes: The X-Y Scale

(A self-report instrument and structured experience)

Goals:

To evaluate one's leadership style

To identify various assumptions about the nature of man and identify one's own attitude

To determine if one's leadership behaviors are consistent with one's attitude toward mankind.

Group Size:

Unlimited

Time Required:

Approximately one hour

Materials:

I. Supervisory Attitudes: The X-Y scale instrument for each participant

II. Pencil for each participant

Physical Setting:

Participants should be seated at tables or desks

Process:

I. The facilitator asks the participants to think about their leadership style, their attitude toward leadership and followership, and their assumptions about the nature of man.

II. The facilitator asks the participants to complete Part I of the instrument.

III. The facilitator gives a brief lecture on Theory X - Theory Y formulation.

IV. The participants complete Part II of the instrument.

- V. The participants score Part I of the instrument.
- VI. The participants compare their score on Part I with their prediction on Part II.
- VII. The facilitator leads a discussion of the results of the comparisons of Part I and Part II.

Variations:

- I. Participants may be asked to form small groups and discuss their attitudes and behaviors and discuss personal philosophies of leadership.
- II. Prior to participating in this experience, the participants could be administered a leadership-style assessment form.
- III. This instrument could be followed by an instrument which measures interpersonal behaviors to compare it with.
- IV. Participants could predict how another will score and discuss why they predicted as they did.
- V. Participants can be asked to identify and categorize behaviors that might be reflective of Theory X or Theory Y assumptions about man.

References:

None.

Acknowledgements:

See instrument

Enclosures:

- 1. Supervisory Attitudes: The X-Y Scale

Supervisory Attitudes: The X-Y Scale

(Reproduced from The 1972 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, J. William Pfeiffer and John E. Jones, editors. LaJolla, Cal.: University Associates, Inc. 1972.)

Name _____

Group _____

Part I

Directions: The following are various types of behavior which a supervisor (manager, leader) may engage in in relation to subordinates. Read each item carefully and then put a check mark in one of the columns to indicate what you would do.

If I were the supervisor, I would:	Make a Great Effort to Do This	Tend to Do This	Tend to Avoid Doing This	Make a Great Effort to Avoid This
1. Closely supervise my subordinates in order to get better work from them.	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. Set the goals and objectives for my subordinates and sell them on the merits of my plans.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. Set up controls to assure that my subordinates are getting the job done.	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. Encourage my subordinates to set their own goals and objectives.	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. Make sure that my subordinates' work is planned out for them.	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>Make a Great Effort to Do This</u>	<u>Tend to Do This</u>	<u>Tend to Avoid Doing This</u>	<u>Make a Great Effort to Avoid This</u>
6. Check with my subordinates daily to see if they need any help.	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. Step in as soon as reports indicate the job is slipping.	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. Push my people to meet schedules if necessary.	_____	_____	_____	_____
9. Have frequent meetings to keep in touch with what is going on.	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. Allow subordinates to make important decisions.	_____	_____	_____	_____

Part II:

Directions: Read the descriptions of the two theories of leadership below. Think about your own attitudes toward subordinates, and locate on the scale below where you think you are in reference to these sets of assumptions.

Theory X Assumptions

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.
2. Because of this human characteristic of dislike for work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.
3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all.

Theory Y Assumptions

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.
2. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means of bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.
3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.
4. The average human being learns under proper conditions not only to accept but also to seek responsibility.
5. The capacity to exercise a high degree of imagination, ingenuity and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.

Indicate on the scale below where you would classify your own basic attitudes toward your subordinates in terms of McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y.

Theory X 10 20 30 40 Theory Y

Scoring Instructions: Items 4 and 10 are worded so that the scoring is reversed from that of the other eight items. For items 1-3 and 5-9 the scoring is done like this:

Do	Tend to Do	Tend to Avoid	Avoid
<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>

The appropriate number is written beside the check mark, and these are summed. (For items 4 and 10 the scale is 4, 3, 2, and 1). This score is located on the scale in Part II and is a crude index to the extent to which the respondent's assumptions match those of the two theories.

*The X-Y Scale was adapted from an instrument developed by Robert N. Ford of AT&T for in-house training of supervisors. Ten items were taken from the longer instrument, and the selection was based upon their application to a wide variety of training enterprises.

SECTION II (Part A)

Listening

The ultimate goal of human communication is to affect, in some manner, human behavior. The communication act which is intended to change or modify certain attitudes or ideas another holds is an obvious attempt to affect human behavior through change. This is possible because an individual's attitude and behavior must be consistent or one of the two will change in order to achieve consistency. Attitudes are generally changed in order to eliminate inconsistencies.¹ Likewise, the communication act which is intended to reinforce an attitude attempts to affect human behavior by also reinforcing that behavior through strengthening that attitude. It should follow then, that if one can affect another's attitude toward specific matters, he can also affect, and perhaps predict and control, another's behavior. However, this is not necessarily true of forced behaviors and the control thereof. Once the force is eliminated, so will be the behavior. It only seems logical, then, that a leader would concentrate his efforts on attitudes, or internal forces, and not on external forces. Since man is predominantly a symbol using animal, the use of symbols would be the method to achieve the goal of affecting human behavior. An act of communication, which is man's most sophisticated use of symbols, would then be the means to the end; that of affecting human behavior.

There are two parts to every communication act: the message sent and the message received, and they are not always one in the same. The message from the sender to the receiver derives meaning based on the total of each individual's experience. For the message to be effective (affect human behavior), the meanings must have some degree of coincidence. The question becomes one of either the sender structuring the message to suit the receiver's ears to the receiver listening for the intended message of the sender. Obviously, both occurrences must take place to some extent. However, since the task of speaking, especially open, honest and truthful speaking, is more difficult a task than listening, listening should be the communication skill that more readily assumes the other's posture. In fact, listening is so simple a task that few people do it well. The mind has a capacity to hear more than another is physically capable of saying. Therefore, the listener has an opportunity to drift in and out, anticipate what will be said next, evaluate what has been said, and still "hear" what the sender has to say; or does he really?

One of the common problems with listening is that most people equate it with hearing. But listening is more than hearing. It is an attitude toward and about people. Listening is consistent with the concept of developmental leadership because it is an attitude about people which recognizes the creative potential in each individual and

allows the individual to express that potential in a non-evaluative, non-threatening environment. It is an attitude which recognizes the worth of others by realizing that someone else may have a better idea, a better way, and listening helps them to express that idea. Since messages have different meanings to the sender and the receiver, much is left to interpretation. But active and participative listening minimizes what may be left for interpretation.

Many authors have written on the skills required (the do's and don't's) for one to be an effective listener. Thomas Gordon, in Group-Centered Leadership, implies these skills by discussing the barriers to constructive participation and effective communication of group members. He notes that members do not participate because of 1) feelings of inadequacy, 2) fear of evaluation and rejection, 3) reactions to authority (i.e., what is right, what do they want), and 4) ego-centered participants (those who do not allow others to participate).² He lists the need to defend one's ideas, devaluation of the worth of members, and limited face-to-face contact as barriers to effective communication.³ Similarly, Joseph A. Wagner, in Successful Leadership in Groups and Organizations, has determined that successful discussion requires:⁴

- 1) Responsible participation
 - identifying how much about an issue one really knows
 - realizing that ends do not justify the means
 - dealing with all the issues

- knowing when to and when not to speak
 - standing by decisions
- 2) Listening
 - study the topic
 - study the method of delivery and be responsive to main points, support, etc.
 - watch the speaker
 - listen empathically
 - delay judgment
 - 3) Coping with hidden agendas
 - 4) Effective oral style
 - clear, understandable, brief
 - adapt to receivers' ears
 - use of verbs which emphasize and give the feeling of movement.

James Cribbin says that humans are selective, evaluative, and subjective listeners and identifies ways in which that fault may be minimized.⁵ He advocates, as others do, to put oneself in the other person's frame of reference and then listen to what he has to offer. Once this mental role-reversal takes place, the listener should pay close attention and listen encouragingly, prudently, for the real message, and to learn.⁶ Reflective listening includes making constructive responses that help the speaker express his thoughts and feelings. Cribbin says that one can help by: 1) asking non-directive questions, 2) rephrasing, 3) recognizing the feelings expressed, and 4) confirming agreement or points by asking guiding questions.⁷ Additionally, one can contribute constructively by identifying the metaphor that the speaker is using to express his thoughts and then utilizing that metaphor when responding.

Many people use the senses to help them speak (e.g., "I hear what you're saying," "I see what you mean," "I can get my hands on that," etc.). To repeat back to them the same metaphor in constructive responses encourages them to continue; there is a feeling that real communication is taking place.

The skills that have been mentioned are manners in which interpersonal communication can be more effective because they stem in part from an attitude of communication, an ideal, called dialogue. Dialogue refers to a special relationship between human beings. In order to enter into dialogue, an individual must be totally in touch with himself. He must understand and accept what he is, aspires to be, and can become. In addition, he must see those things in another. By knowing himself, he does not have to try to change the other person. Their combined uniqueness and individualities are enhanced by a relationship which allows for the same. Their uniquenesses are completed by allowing them to be shared with others. If not shared, of what useful purpose was it? Therefore, dialogue allows individuals to participate in another's individuality and completes it through involvement, but does not require another to necessarily internalize the elements that make up that uniqueness, just recognize them.⁸

This is where listening that aspires to be non-selective, non-evaluative, non-subjective, but constructive and helpful

has its root. It is listening that helps the individual express himself and fulfills the object of uniqueness; allowing it to be shared.

The applications for a leader are numerous. The more accepted and worthy an individual feels, the more productive he will be. Rensis Likert notes that "good communication and high productivity go together."⁹ He also states that "distrust leads to communication failures."¹⁰ Listening, then, should be viewed by a leader as an important vehicle in potential productivity of the individual and the organization. To be an effective listener improves the effectiveness of communication, enhances relationships and helps develop a valuable resource, human resources.

ENDNOTES

¹Roger Brown, Social Psychology (Toronto, Ontario: Collier-MacMillan Canada, Ltd., 1965), p. 549. See chapter 11, "The Principle of Consistency in Attitude Change."

²Thomas Gordon, Group-Centered Leadership (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1955), pp. 67-69.

³*Ibid.*, pp. 80-86.

⁴Joseph A. Wagner, Successful Leadership in Groups and Organizations, 2nd ed. (New York: Chandler Publishing Company, 1973), pp. 20-23.

⁵James J. Cribbin, Effective Managerial Leadership (New York: American Management Association, 1972) p. 172.

⁶*Ibid.*, pp. 172-173.

⁷*Ibid.*, pp. 173-174.

⁸For a discussion on dialogue see Martin Buber, The Knowledge of Man, edited and translated by Maurice Friedman (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, Inc., 1966).

⁹Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1961), p. 49.

¹⁰*Ibid.*, p. 45.

SECTION II (Part B)

Listening Triads: Building Communications Skills

(Reproduced from: A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training, Vol. I, Rev., J. William Pfeiffer and John E. Jones, eds., LaJolla, Cal.: University Associates, Inc., 1974)

Goals:

- I. To develop skills in active listening
- II. To study barriers to effective listening

Group Size:

Unlimited number of triads

Time Required:

Approximately forty-five minutes

Materials:

- I. Listening Triads Topics for Discussion Sheet for each participant
- II. Listening Triads Questions for Discussion Sheet for each participant

Physical Setting:

Room large enough for triads to be seated apart to avoid noise interference

Process:

- I. The facilitator briefly discusses the goals of the activity.
- II. Triads are formed.
- III. Participants in each triad identify themselves as A, B, or C.
- IV. The facilitator distributes copies of the Topics for Discussion Sheet.

- V. The following instructions are given by the facilitator:
1. Participant A is the first speaker and chooses the topic to be discussed.
 2. Participant B is the first listener.
 3. Participant C is the first referee.
 4. The topic chosen is to be discussed by the speaker. It is important that he be sensitive to the capacity of the listener. They can establish nonverbal cues for pacing the discussion.
 5. The listener must summarize in his own words and without notes.
 6. If the summary is thought to be incorrect, both the speaker and the referee are free to interrupt and correct any misunderstanding.
 7. The referee is to make certain that the listener does not omit, distort, add to, respond to, or interpret what the speaker has said.
 8. The total process of speaking and summarizing shall take seven minutes in each round.
- VI. Round 1 is begun. The facilitator stops the process after seven minutes and responds to procedural questions.
- VII. Participant B then becomes the speaker, participant C the listener, and participant A the referee. The new speaker chooses his topic and begins. Round 2 should also take seven minutes.
- VIII. Then C becomes the speaker, A the listener, and B the referee. After seven minutes, the discussion in Round 3 ends.
- IX. The facilitator distributes copies of the Listening Triads Questions for Discussion Sheet, and triads discuss their process. Then generalizations about barriers to effective listening are elicited from the entire group.

Variations:

- I. Topics for discussion may be generated within the group. The facilitator may ask, "What are some topics about which there is likely to be disagreement within this group?" Suggestions are posted for use in the exercise.
- II. Participant expectations about the training event can be discussed within the listening triads format.
- III. Instead of only one speaker during each of the three rounds, there can be two speakers. Each must paraphrase what he hears before he responds. (The role of referee rotates from round to round.)
- IV. Instead of telling the speaker what is heard, the listener can report what he remembers to the referee, with the speaker free to interrupt.
- V. A fourth round can be added, in which each of the participants both speaks about and listens to another topic. This three-way conversation is a practice session for using what is learned in the previous rounds.
- VI. Whenever two participants do not seem to be speaking and/or listening effectively to each other, the facilitator may referee or ask the entire group to referee.
- VII. During Round 1, the listener can be instructed to "parrot" the speaker, repeating word-for-word. In the second round the listener paraphrases, and in the third round the listener reflects the feelings being expressed by the speaker. A final round incorporates all three listening modes.

Similar Structured Experiences: Vol. I: Structured Experience 1, 4, 21; Vol. II: 25; Vol. III: 52, 66, 70; '73 Annual: 87; Vol. IV: 118.

Lecturette Sources: '72 Annual: "Communication Modes: An Experiential Lecture"; '73 Annual: "Conditions Which Hinder Effective Communication," "Thinking and Feeling."

Listening Triads Topics for Discussion Sheet

Each speaker chooses one topic:

1. Capital punishment
2. Prison reform
3. Drug use and abuse
4. Women's liberation
5. Foreign policy
6. Ecology
7. The new morality
8. Interracial marriage
9. Premarital and extramarital sex
10. Cohabitation
11. All-volunteer army
12. Political reform
13. Divorce
14. Homosexuality
15. The open classroom
16. The profit motive

Listening Triads Questions for Discussion Sheet

1. What difficulties did you experience in each of the roles--speaker, listener, and referee?
2. What barriers to effective listening emerged during the exercise?
3. What did you learn about the effectiveness of your self-expression?
4. What applications might you make of this paraphrasing technique?

SECTION III (Part A)

Giving Instructions/Making Corrections

If an individual is to be an effective leader, he is dependent upon his subordinates to do as they should, and more specifically, to do as they are told. It is, therefore, a critical function of a leader to be able to give effective instructions and complement these instructions with making corrections when things are not as they should be. However, this is not simply a matter of sending a message to a receiver and expecting that receiver to function accordingly. Perception has a large impact upon the effectiveness of messages.

Any message sent is the sum total of the experiences of the sender structured around an intended meaning. Likewise, the meaning to the receiver is the sum total of his experiences of that message. However, the result of the message sent and message received is effective only to the extent to which the "meaning" overlaps. How many times has one excused his behavior by saying, "I thought I did what I was told," only to be corrected by a supervisor who responds, "Don't think!" The reason for the confusion is most likely due to perception. The sender of the message perceives one meaning because that is his experience with that message; but the receiver, because of different experiences, perceives another meaning. Who is at fault, or does it really matter? The result is the same since the information was not processed as intended, an error was made, the work must

be repeated, valuable time has been lost, and more important, a relationship has been damaged because each feels the other is somewhat incompetent, one in giving instructions and the other in receiving instructions. A long, tedious and somewhat impossible solution would be to insure that the message sent is the message received by insuring common experiences exist between all individuals; experiences that structure the meaning in a message like age, sex, race, achievement, intelligence, etc. Or, the leader could become more specific in his instructions and leave less room for error by sending goal-oriented instructions. Since human behavior is goal-oriented anyway, it only seems logical to give goal-oriented instructions that give the individual something to aim for. The SPIRO mode provides a model for goal-oriented communications.

Reproduced below is the meaning of the SPIRO:¹

- | | |
|--------------------------|---|
| <u>S</u> -- Specificity. | General instructions are less useful than specific ones because specific ones imply next steps or imply behaviors to be changed |
| <u>P</u> -- Performance. | Performance-oriented instructions are more effective in guiding what the person is going to do rather than some non-performance statements. |
| <u>I</u> -- Involvement. | An instruction that suggests how the person seeking the goal is going to be involved is more effective than a non-involving goal statement. |

R -- Realism.

An instruction that clearly suggests the attainability of the goal is more effective than a statement of an unrealistic goal.

O -- Observability.

An instruction that makes it possible to directly observe overt results is more effective than one that merely suggests covert results.

It is obvious that if one uses these criteria while giving instructions or making corrections, the work performed will more closely resemble what the leader wanted accomplished. Additionally, the employees feel they are a part of the organization. Their performance has an observable impact on the operations of the organization. They can take responsibility for their work because it complies with standards set and has a positive influence on the functioning of the organization. There is a sense of worth and involvement in the organization through the task. The workers take over ownership of the task.

Another way to accomplish task ownership and organizational involvement is through a brief-back system. The SPIRO mode is basically downward communication. It helps subordinates to comply with what is directed, but the goal is internalization with the acceptable minimum being employee involvement. Even encouraging subordinates to ask questions based on the criteria of SPIRO still only fulfills the compliance response. However, employees will be forced to become involved, which may result in ownership if they are also instructed to give progress reports. This forces the

individual to begin working on the project assigned early and allows him to do his best work. Corrections can be made early if an error was to be found that may have detrimental impact on the final project. Too often the only communications are the initial instructions and final evaluation. This allows an employee to excuse his behavior as discussed earlier. But, if progress reports are given, the individual is confirmed that what has been done is correct and he can more intensely work on subsequent portions of the project, never looking back, always forward.

Involvement and ownership can also be attained through a flexible use of suspense dates. When time permits, the leader may want to set general guidelines for the completion of the task. By doing so, and allowing the individual to set his own suspense dates for completion and progress reports, the worker is allowed to prioritize his own workload and determine for himself what is critical to the organization. This responsibility allows him to feel good about him, his job, and his organization. The leader is providing an environment in which his workers can experience self-actualization, at least to some extent, within specific tasks. The experience cannot hurt.

As stated earlier, giving instructions and making corrections is not simply a matter of sending a message to a receiver and expecting that receiver to function accordingly; but it can be. By giving goal-directed instructions

and encouraging questions based on the SPIRO criteria, the job will be performed as directed. By allowing for task ownership through flexible suspenses and progress reports, the job will be performed as well the next time, even if not directed.

ENDNOTES

¹Information on the "SPIRO Mode" was obtained from Dr. Kenneth R. Williams in a discussion at the University of Wisconsin-Stevens Point. For further information see also "Criteria of Effective Goal-Setting: The SPIRO Model," The 1972 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, eds. J. William Pfeiffer and John E. Jones (LaJolla, Cal.: University Associates, Inc., 1972), pp. 133-134.

SECTION III (Part B)

One-Way, Two-Way: A Communications Experiment

(Reproduced from: A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training, Vol. I., Rev., J. William Pfeiffer and John E. Jones, eds., LaJolla, Cal.: University Associates, Inc., 1974.)

Goals:

- I. To conceptualize the superior functioning of two-way communication through participatory demonstration.
- II. To examine the application of communication in family, social, and occupational settings.

Group Size:

Unlimited

Time Required:

Approximately forty-five minutes

Materials:

- I. Newsprint and felt-tipped marker
- II. Two sheets of paper and a pencil for each participant
- III. A reproduction of Diagram I and Diagram II for the demonstrator.

Physical Setting:

Participants should be seated facing the demonstrator, but in such a way that it will be difficult, if not impossible, to see each other's drawings.

Process:

- I. The facilitator may wish to begin with a discussion about ways of looking at communication in terms of content, direction, networks, or interference.
- II. The facilitator explains that the group will experiment with the directional aspects of communication by participating in the following exercise:

1. The facilitator selects a demonstrator and one or two observers. The remaining participants each are supplied with a pencil and two sheets of paper. They are instructed to label one sheet Diagram I and the other Diagram II.
2. The facilitator tells the group that the demonstrator will give them directions for drawing a series of squares. Participants are instructed to draw the squares exactly as the demonstrator tells them, on the paper labeled Diagram I. Participants may neither ask questions nor give audible responses.
3. The demonstrator is asked to study the arrangement of squares in Diagram I for two minutes.
4. The facilitator instructs the observers to take notes on the behavior and reactions of the demonstrator and/or the participants.
5. The facilitator prepares the following three tables on newsprint.

Table 1
(For Diagram I)

Number Correct	Estimate	Actual
5		
4		
3		
2		
1		
0		

Table 2
(For Diagram II)

Number Correct	Estimate	Actual
5		
4		
3		
2		
1		
0		

Table 3
(Summary)

	Diagram I	Diagram II
Time Elapsed		
Estimated Median		
Actual Median		

6. The facilitator asks the demonstrator to turn his back to the group or to stand behind a screen. The facilitator then asks him to proceed, reminding him to tell the group what to draw as quickly and as accurately as he can. The facilitator again cautions the group not to ask questions.
 7. The time it takes the demonstrator to complete his instructions is recorded in the summary Table 3 under Diagram I.
 8. Each participant is asked to estimate the number of squares he has drawn correctly in relation to the other squares. The facilitator then tabulates the participants' estimates in Table 1.
 9. The first phase of the experience is repeated with the following modifications: The demonstrator uses Diagram II, he faces the group, and he is allowed to respond to questions from the group. The participants should use the papers labeled Diagram II.
 10. The facilitator has each of the participants estimate the number of squares he has drawn correctly in the second phase of the exercise and tabulates the estimates on Table 2. The facilitator then uses Tables 1 and 2 to calculate the median (or average) estimated accuracy for both Diagram I and Diagram II. He posts these medians in Table 3.
 11. The group is then shown the actual diagrams for the two sets of squares. Each participant counts the number of squares he has drawn correctly on each diagram.
 12. In the last columns of Tables 1 and 2, the facilitator tabulates the number of squares the participants have drawn correctly for each diagram. From the data, he determines the medians for Diagrams I and II and enters these in Table 3.
- III. The facilitator leads a discussion of the results in terms of time, accuracy, and level of confidence, calling upon "back-home" experience and application.

- IV. The observers report their process observations. The group discusses these in relation to the data generated during the first phase of the discussion.

Variations:

- I. Instead of medians, means (arithmetic averages) may be computed.
- II. Additional phases such as the following can be included:
 - 1. Two-way, with demonstrator facing participants, who are permitted to react nonverbally.
 - 2. Two-way, with demonstrator not facing participants.
- III. Two or more participants can be selected to work together as a demonstration team.
- IV. Teams of participants can be formed to draw the diagrams on newsprint cooperatively.
- V. The content can be changed to include data relevant to the objectives of the training and/or a more complex type of problem.
- VI. Physical models, made of dominoes or blocks, can be described by the demonstrator.

Lecturette Sources: '72 Annual: "Communication Modes: An Experiential Lecture"; '73 Annual: "Conditions Which Hinder Effective Communication."

*The structured experiences is adapted from H. J. Leavitt's Managerial Psychology (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958), pp. 118-28.

Diagram I: One-Way Communication

Instructions: Study the series of squares below. With your back to the group, you are to direct the participants in how they are to draw the figures. Begin with the top square and describe each in succession, taking particular note of the relationship of each to the preceding one. No questions are allowed.

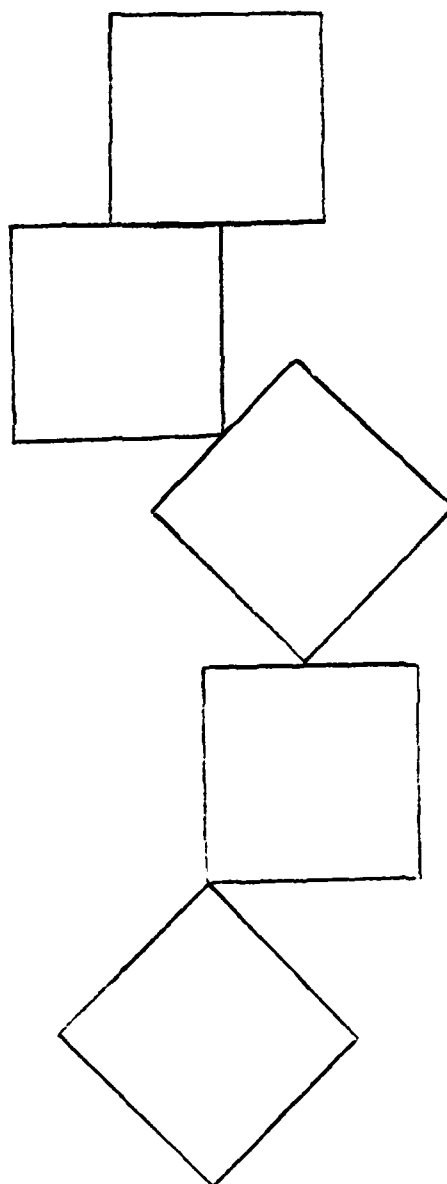
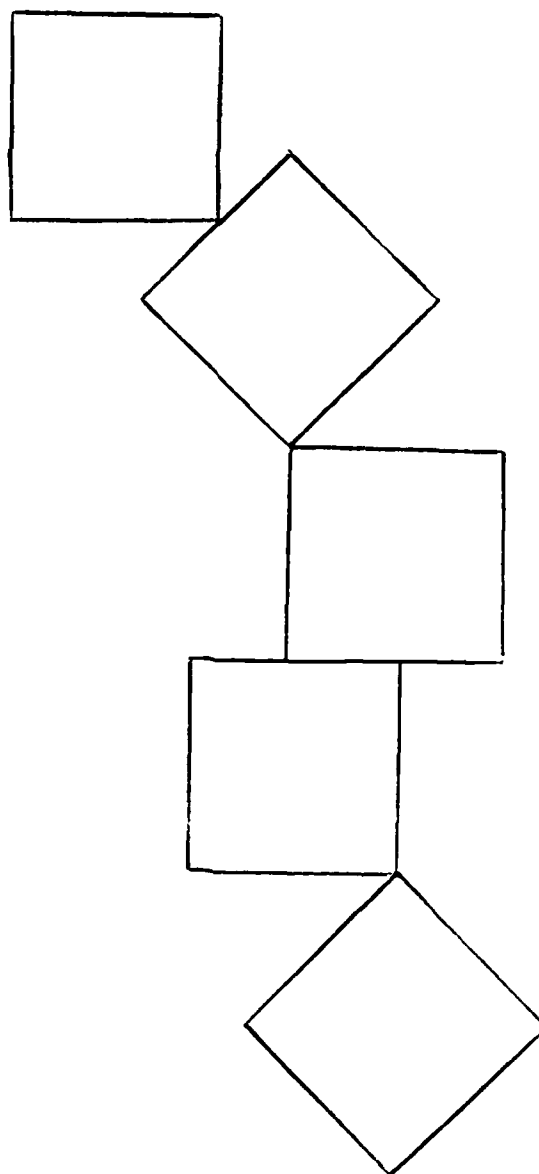


Diagram II: Two-Way Communication

Instructions: Study the series of squares below. Facing the group, you are to direct the participants in how they are to draw the figures. Begin with the top square and describe each in succession, taking particular note of the relation of each to the preceding one. Answer all questions from the participants and repeat if necessary.



SECTION IV (Part A)

Conflict Management

The United States is the most industrialized and technologically advanced nation in the world, but the per capita productivity is behind Japan, France, Canada, West Germany and Italy. This is partially explained by our increased stressful environment and the inability to cope in a manner that does not cause individual and organizational disruptions.¹ While it is widely accepted that some degree of stress is desirable to enhance productivity, creating a stressful environment does not seem to be the problem. The problem is reducing the amount of stress to a manageable level and redirecting it in a more useful manner. A conflict management system can aid in this respect. Aggression is a behavioral response that can be triggered by excessive amounts of stress or "pressure" on an individual. Obviously, not all aggressive behavior will lead to conflict, but that may be a possible result. When aggression is aroused, there are three possible outcomes: 1) anger, verbal hostility or physical violence directed at the frustrator or frustrating circumstances, 2) displacement, a "scapegoat," or 3) inhibition with possible adverse side-effects.² None of these results or outcomes is desirable to the organization. The organizational leader must find ways to redirect aggressive behavior into useful, productive behavior. However, once conflict arises, the leader must also be able to manage it.

"Management" implies the use of various ways of dealing with conflict; not just a problem solving approach. A conflict management system entails all the methods that an individual selects which allow him to control the conflict rather than have the conflict control the behaviors of the individual.

At the organizational level, the vast majority of conflicts are social in nature (involving two or more persons). A social conflict arises in a relationship when two or more persons have incompatible interests. It is more than a disagreement, difference of opinion or controversy. It arises when the personal interests of one or more individuals are threatened. The conflict may exist over value differences, personal animosities, competition for scarce resources, or some combination thereof.³ Since personal interests are involved, an understanding of those interests would be a logical starting point in a conflict management system.

Knowing one's "self" goes back to a philosophy of man discussed earlier. It is identifying one's wants, needs, goals, etc., within the internal operating principles discussed in Chapter II. A successful self-examination of one's needs and goals allows for a more open and honest personal relationship which then allows the communication of those needs and goals to be more open, honest and accurate. There is a mutual obligation for all parties to the conflict to identify personal needs and goals. An honest

self-examination is critical in forming and maintaining successful relationships.⁴ The interpersonal communications will be enhanced and the possibility of entering into "dialogue" as discussed earlier will also be enhanced. An examination of one's goals and needs prior to and during a relationship provides the individual an opportunity to enter the relationship as an active listener. It provides both or all the parties with the opportunity to express their uniqueness and individuality in their ideas, feelings, attitudes, etc. It also gives the parties to the conflict a chance to accept responsibility for their actions without threat. In this way, "communication stoppers" (messages with easy solutions, criticisms, false support or opportunities for easy withdrawal) are controlled and the real conflict can be dealt with.⁵ "Any method that contributes to an increase in empathy among individuals should decrease aggressive behavior because greater identification with the aggressee is then possible . . ."⁶ For organizational leaders, this implies such things as letting people know where they stand, what is expected, communicating frequently, being supportive (showing confidence and trust, training individuals, using employee ideas, being approachable, aiding in problem solving; not solving problems for the individual) and delegating responsibility, authority, and accountability to the extent it can be.⁷

The next step in conflict resolution is to deal with

the conflict at the earliest possible time after the situation arises. To immediately jump into an attempt at conflict resolution means the emotions of the individuals must be accepted and dealt with. The more calm, deliberate and organized the individuals are, the more likely they will be persuasive and constructive and will confine the conflict to the immediate issue and not hedge on past complaints or problems. Two possible ways of providing for controlled conflicts are to agree on a time and place to discuss the matter and/or to invite a mediator which becomes an audience to the conflict and increase the likelihood that only the issues contracted for will be discussed.⁸

As long as a conflict is inevitable, it may as well be functional. Five requirements for a constructive conflict that should be carried into every conflict situation are:⁹

- 1) a critical review of past actions;
- 2) frequent and effective communication between disputants with established outlets to express grievances;
- 3) an equitable distribution of systems resources;
- 4) standardization in modes of resolution; and
- 5) creation of a balance of power within the system.

There are five basic responses when faced with a conflict situation that allow an individual to manage the conflict. The criteria of constructive, functional conflict along with the attitudes about self and other need to be incorporated into each possible response in order to provide

for the management system to be useful. Within these parameters, all of the responses may be, at one time or another, the most suitable for that specific situation. The five responses are: 1) withdraw, 2) fight-to-win, 3) attempt problem solving, 4) negotiate a compromise, or 5) incorporate the problem into the solution.¹⁰

One can withdraw from a conflict when he sufficiently know himself and decides that the conflict does not involve him, has no potential to become constructive, or realizes that he can easily change his own orientation.

A fight-to-win attitude can effectively be used if one must absolutely have his way to reach some goal. Preferably, it will be used only when the individual has a proven method and does not have the time or resources to employ alternate responses.

The third approach, a problem solving technique, should begin with a goal setting session which means clearly stating what end is to be achieved.¹¹ The problem should then be identified based on the needs of all concerned and all inconsistent needs should be resolved before continuing. Step two in problem solving is to determine the requirements that a good solution must include. Then alternate solutions, each containing the solution requirements, can be presented. Strategies for implementing each discussed solution should then be agreed upon. All that remains is to implement the solution that appears to be the most advantageous for all

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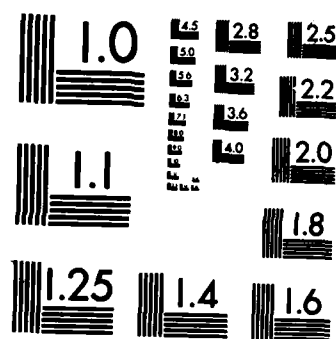
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and, at a later date, to evaluate its effectiveness.¹²

The fourth response, negotiating a compromise, is only difficult because the individuals usually start with demands that are unfairly high and proceed toward what is considered an acceptable norm. If the individuals "knew" each other, what each really needed, they would not need to negotiate. Both parties are obviously willing to concede some of their demands and accept what is considered fair (the norm) or else they would have never begun the process.¹³

Lastly, incorporating the problem into the solution allows one to buy time to get to the real root of the problem. Although it appears deceitful on the surface, if used properly it allows the aggressor to rid himself of the emotions of the situation while the true problem is searched for by the other individual. By playing along he can force the real issue to surface. This technique could be used effectively by a leader who has been directed, by superiors or procedures, etc., to do something in a specific manner. Employees, not realizing that guidance from higher up was issued, might voice their concerns about the situation. The leader could hold this information "in reserve" and allow the subordinates to "blow off steam" while the leader searches for the real issue that the individual is upset about.

Another author, Harry Kaufman, has offered a sixth possible response that has proved useful in conflict

resolution and which could be used here; that of simulation (role playing or reverse role playing). The method has proved useful in separating real from imagined conflicts, in duplicating decisions to be made, or in evaluating how people estimate probabilities or contingencies.¹⁴

To sum up the conflict management system presented thus far, one would need to know oneself, be able to accept others, deal with the conflict immediately, choose the appropriate response, plan the agenda, eliminate the emotions, make it functional, and come away with something that can be used for the next conflict. Each conflict is situationally dependent and the appropriate response depends on that situation. However, all other elements need to be incorporated into that particular response.

ENDNOTES

¹John M. Ivancevich and Michael T. Matteson, Stress and Work (Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1980), p. 18.

²This paragraph is a summary of Denis Hill, "Aggression and Mental Illness," in The Natural History of Aggression, eds. J. D. Carthy and F. J. Ebling (New York: The Academic Press, Inc., 1964), p. 92.

³The discussion of a "social conflict" is a summary of Herbert W. Simons, "The Carrot and Stick as Handmaidens of Persuasion in Conflict Situations," in Perspectives on Communication in Social Conflict, eds. Gerald R. Miller and Herbert W. Simons (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1974), p. 178.

⁵Mendal Lieberman and Marion Hardie, Resolving Family and Other Conflicts (Santa Cruz, Cal.: Unity Press, 1981), p. 4.

⁵Ibid., pp. 70-73.

⁶K. E. Moyer, The Psychology of Aggression (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1976), p. 102.

⁷Burt K. Scanlan, "Managerial Leadership in Perspective: Getting Back to Basics," Personnel Journal (March, 1979), pp. 168-170.

⁸This paragraph is a summary of George R. Bach and Peter Wyden, The Intimate Enemy (New York: William Morrow & Company, Inc., 1968), pp. 69-72.

⁹Philip K. Tompkins et al., "Conflict and Communication Within the University," in Perspectives on Communication in Social Conflict, pp. 153-171, eds. Gerald R. Miller and Herbert W. Simons (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1974), p. 156, citing H. Assael, "Constructive Role of Interorganizational Conflict," Administrative Science Quarterly 14 (1969):573-582.

¹⁰Kathryn Welds, "Conflict in the Work Place and How to Manage It," Personnel Journal (June, 1979), p. 382.

¹¹Roger A. Kaufman, Identifying and Solving Problems: A System Approach (LaJolla, Cal.: University Associates, Inc., 1976), p. 25.

¹²Ibid., pp. 64-70.

¹³Otomar J. Bartos, "Determinants and Consequences of Toughness," in The Structure of Conflict, ed. Paul Swingle (New York: The Academic Press, Inc., 1970), p. 46.

¹⁴Harry Kaufman, Aggression and Altruism (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1970), p. 130.

SECTION IV (Part B)

Win As Much As You Can:
An Intergroup Competition

(Reproduced from: A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training, Vol. II, Rev., J. William Pfeiffer and John E. Jones, eds., LaJolla, Cal.: University Associates, Inc., 1974.)

Goals:

- I. To dramatize the merits of both competitive and collaborative models within the context of intra-group and intergroup relations.
- II. To illustrate the impact of win-lose situations.

Group Size:

Unlimited numbers of eight-person clusters. Each octet is subdivided into four dyads (two-person partnerships).

Time Required:

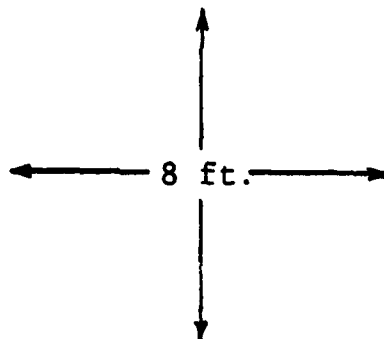
Approximately one hour.

Materials:

- I. Copies of the Win as Much as You Can Tally Sheet for each partnership.
- II. Pencils.

Physical Setting:

Dyads comprising each octet are seated far enough away from each other for strategy to be discussed confidentially, yet close enough for the cluster to interact.



Process:

- I. Octets are formed and are divided into dyads. From this point on, the octets will be known as clusters. Each cluster will then be seated as in the illustration preceding. Each partnership is given a copy of the Tally Sheet and asked to study it. At the end of three minutes, participants are asked to share their understanding of the game with their "partner."
- II. The facilitator reads the following directions aloud:
 1. The title of this activity is "Win as Much as You Can." You are to keep that goal in mind throughout the experience.
 2. There are three key rules:
 - a. You are not to confer with other members of your cluster unless you are given specific permission to do so. This prohibition applies to nonverbal as well as verbal communication.
 - b. Each dyad must agree upon a single choice for each round.
 - c. You are to insure that the other members of your cluster do not know your dyad's choice until you are instructed to reveal it.
 3. There are ten rounds to this exercise. During each round you and your partner will have one minute to mark your choice for the round. Remember the rules. You may now take one minute to mark your choice for round one.
 - a. (After a lapse of one minute.) If you have not marked your choice, please raise your hand. (The facilitator should make sure that each dyad has completed the task before he proceeds, but he should keep the activity moving.)
 - b. Share your decision with the other members of your cluster.
 - c. Mark your score card on the Tally Sheet for round one according to the payoff schedule.

- d. Are there any questions about the scoring?
(The response to all questions concerning the purpose of the activity should be, "The name of the game is 'Win as Much as You Can.'")
4. (The facilitator continues the game as follows:
 - a. You have one minute to mark your decision for round two.
 - b. Has any partnership not finished?
 - c. Share and score.
5. (The game is continued by conducting rounds three and four like rounds one and two.)
6. Round five is a bonus round. You will note that the Tally Sheet indicates that all amounts won or lost on this round will be multiplied by three. Before I ask you to mark your choice for this round, I am going to allow you to discuss this exercise with the other members of your cluster. After the group discussion, you and your partner will have one minute to discuss your decision, as before. You may now have three minutes for group discussion. (Discussion is stopped after three minutes.) You and your partner now have one minute to mark your decision for round five. Remember the rules are now in effect. (After the lapse of one minute.) Has any partnership not finished? Share and score.
7. (The facilitator conducts rounds six and seven like rounds one through four.)
8. (Round eight is conducted like round five, with the bonus value increased from three to five times par.)
9. (Round nine is conducted like rounds one through four and rounds six through seven.)
10. (Round ten is conducted like rounds five and eight, with the bonus value increased to ten times par.)
11. (The facilitator has each cluster compute its net score from the four dyadic scores. Example: +18, -21, +6, and +2 = +5. It is possible for each cluster to score +100, i.e., +25, +25, +25 and +25, if all four dyads choose Y, the collaboration option, in each round.)

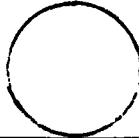
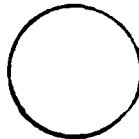
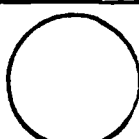
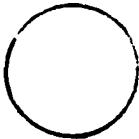
III. The facilitator opens the discussion of the process and its implications. The following key points should be raised.

1. Does the "You" in "Win as Much as You Can" mean you as a dyad or you as a cluster?
2. The effects of competition and collaboration should be considered.
3. How does the cluster's net score compare to the possible net score of 100?
4. How does this experience relate to other group situations?

IV. If there is time, the facilitator may wish to discuss the concept of win-lose, lose-lose, and win-win strategies?

Variations:

- I. The exercise can be carried out using money instead of points.
- II. Process observers can be assigned to each cluster.
- III. Partnerships can be placed in separate rooms to minimize the participants' breaking the rules.
- IV. The number of persons in each partnership can be varied. Clusters can be made up of individuals and/or various sizes of partnerships. Larger groups can send representatives to the meetings on bonus rounds.
- V. In round 10, each partnership can be directed to predict the choices of the other three partnerships. These predictions can be posted before announcing the actual choices, as in the following diagram. (Actual choices are recorded in the circle after the predictions are announced.)

Predicting Partnership	Predicted Choices			
	Partnership A	Partnership B	Partnership C	Partnership D
A				
B				
C				
D				

Similar Structured Experiences: Vol. II: Structured Experience 32, 35; Vol. II: 54, 61; '72 Annual: 81, 82, 83; Vol. IV: 105.

Lecture Sources: '72 Annual: "Assumptions about the Nature of Man," "McGregor's Theory X-Theory Y Model"
'73 Annual: "Win-Lose Situations."

*This structured experience is based on the classic "Prisoner's Dilemma" problem as adapted by W. Gellerman.

Win As Much As You Can Tally Sheet

Instructions: For ten successive rounds you and your partner will choose either an X or a Y. Each round's payoff depends on the pattern of choices made in your cluster.

Payoff Schedule

4 X's:	Lose \$1.00 each
3 X's:	Win \$1.00 each
1 Y :	Lose \$3.00
2 X's:	Win \$2.00 each
2 Y's:	Lose \$2.00 each
1 X :	Win \$3.00
3 Y's:	Lose \$1.00 each
4 Y's:	Win \$1.00 each

You are to confer with your partner in each round and make a joint decision. In rounds 5, 8 and 10 you and your partner may first confer with the other dyads in your cluster, before making your joint decision, as before.

Scorecard

	Round	Your Choice (circle)	Cluster's Pattern of Choices	Payoff	Balance
	1	X Y	_X _Y		
	2	X Y	_X _Y		
	3	X Y	_X _Y		
	4	X Y	_X _Y		
Bonus Round: Payoff x 3	5	X Y	_X _Y		
	6	X Y	_X _Y		
	7	X Y	_X _Y		
Bonus Round: Payoff x 5	8	X Y	_X _Y		
	9	X Y	_X _Y		
Bonus Round: Payoff x 10	10	X Y	_X _Y		

SECTION V (Part A)

Problem Solving/Decision Making

In every organization, regardless of its size, a leader's success is determined by his ability to solve problems and make decisions. These two functions go hand-in-hand. When a problem arises, a decision must be made, at least, to attempt to solve the problem or not. Obviously, if the decision is to attempt to solve the problem, subsequent decisions must also be made. Similarly, when a need for a decision arises, a problem must have first been identified. The problem may have been only a need to select one alternative over another for implementation, but a problem regardless. Problem solving and decision making become critical areas for leaders and a place for developmental leadership to thrive. Problem solving and decision making offer areas where the leader has an opportunity to get subordinates involved with organizational activities ranging from worker's personal problems to organizational policy making. As an added benefit, it is no surprise to find out that more thinkers create better decisions and individuals support any decision better if they were instrumental in making it.¹

Effective communication implies the open expression of ideas, opinions, and concerns in an environment free from defense mechanisms and barriers. In such an environment where people deal openly with issues, conflict is more easily resolved and action undertaken. Team members are more willing to consider alternatives to try the untried, and to take responsibility for

action when they have been part of a decision-making process built on effective communication.²

Other benefits of supervisor-subordinate involvement in problem solving and decision making come from:

- 1) a reduction in problem uncertainty due to an increased amount of problem relevant information;
- 2) an increased likelihood of obtaining the best possible solution because of the volume of alternative solutions presented;
- 3) decreased decision revisions because of systematic and thorough problem analysis and idea generation; and
- 4) a more efficient utilization of available manpower.³

The benefits listed by Van Gundy are all decision related; that is, aimed at identifying and implementing the best possible solution to the problem. While this is important to the success of the leader and the organization, what may be of more importance for the future of the organization is the manner in which the leader can develop subordinates while concurrently obtaining the best possible solution. The psychological effect on an individual derived from being involved in the process has long term positive results. The individual is confirmed in the organization as a useful, productive, respected and worthy being. His self-esteem goes up, fostering more pride in his future performance of work. In essence, the effect is positive reinforcement for the individual, not merely for his work. Confirming the individual becomes a more powerful experience than confirming his work ever could be. Along with

obvious increased support for the decision, the organization experiences an increased support and loyalty of its own from that individual. The person has become involved in organizational functions and has shared responsibility for the future of the organization, maybe for the first time. The individual cannot not belong anymore. As a minimum, responsibility must be accepted for that aspect of the organization where the problem and decision arose.

Since the key to obtaining organizational involvement and/or commitment is the goal of developmental leadership, and confirming the individual in the manner discussed is one method of achieving that goal, the leader must be careful in the process to insure that a subordinate is not disconfirmed as easily as he is confirmed. If an individual's ideas are evaluated and judged during the process of decision making and the person is not credited for the potential usefulness of those ideas, the individual will be disconfirmed. The problem solving session and all possible benefits from decision support to better solutions to organizational support will be lost. The individual will not participate in the future. That person will perceive the session as a "sham" by the leadership to make the workers feel needed. As a result, the problem solving session could do nothing more than serve as a catalyst for dissent and disenchantment.

One method of insuring that members are not disconfirmed in the process of offering their ideas is to employ

a technique called the "itemized response" or IR. The IR is a behavioral rule that requires an individual to first comment on the usefulness of another's idea before expressing any reservations or concerns about that idea.⁴ Anything which can be perceived as negative is forbidden. Negative comments are put in question form as a concern of another individual and referred back to the originator of the idea and the other group members for possible discussion and resolution. For example, suppose a group was working on the problem of getting employees acquainted. One individual suggested the company rent a fishing boat and go deep sea fishing. It would be forbidden for another to say something to the effect that, "Well, not everyone will attend," or "We won't be able to rent a large enough boat," etc. An acceptable response following the rules of an itemized response would be, "That's good! Recreation provides a nice informal structure which allows people to get acquainted in their own way. However, my concern is how to insure that we provide a recreational outlet that will be large enough for our group and one which will appeal to everyone." In this manner, an obviously unacceptable idea has been useful in that it contributed to a much better possible solution and all parties concerned perceive that they were instrumental in the process.

The IR mechanism, by design, is a non-evaluative, non-judgmental instrument. It acknowledges only the positive

aspects of past performances, thus confirming the individual, and expresses all concerns for "bettering" performance in a futuristic manner. The concerns are general in that they are not aimed or directed at a particular individual but address a shared responsibility for mutual consideration in the future. The IR is a mechanism that can be used in any context where behavior is monitored and where development or progress is desired.

Not all problems or decisions require or benefit from the input of others as has been discussed. Problems may be so simple that the solution is obvious. Additionally, the organization may have set procedures for handling certain problems which lead to only one possible solution. However, problems that have no obvious solution or organizational precedent and standardized procedures are ones in which creative problem solving techniques should be used.⁵ These types of problems are custom made for a developmental leader. The leader controls all the functions within the problem solving process by acting as a facilitator but seldom gets involved in the process itself. He steers the individual and group to success by providing the necessary structures required to achieve success or problem resolution. The leader provides the map, the vehicle, the stop and yield signs, etc., for the group to be able to drive the car to its destination. Even more important is the ability of the leader to detour the group past obstacles and provide

alternate avenues if the group makes a wrong turn.

It should not be assumed that ideas should never be evaluated. They must be if a decision is to be made. The concern is insuring that ideas are not evaluated prior to the time when all ideas have been generated for fear of stifling creativity. Often an idea that seems absurd will spark the creativity of another through some type of analogy.

The developmental leader's goal of gaining involvement and organizational commitment can be achieved if he concentrates on the problem-solving stages of redefining and analyzing the problem and generating ideas rather than those evaluating, selecting, and implementing ideas.⁶ Subordinate involvement is attained during the first two stages.

While redefining and analyzing the problem, the leader attempts to obtain enough information from the client (the owner or representative of the problem) to allow the participants insight into the real issues. The leader simultaneously converges on the client to determine the actual wants and needs of the individual while diverging from the problem as stated in an effort to sensitize the participant to the actual problem.

In the idea generation stage, the emphasis is on volume, or quantity, not quality. The leader should confirm each contribution for its potential usefulness as a springboard to an idea that appeals to the client. This is where the leader must insure that others use the IR

mechanism. The remaining stages of the problem solving are centered on the client, or owner of the problem. By then, the subordinates should feel instrumental in the success or failure of any solution which achieves the leader's goal of gaining organizational involvement for the subordinates.

ENDNOTES

¹This sentence is a paraphrase of Thomas Gordon, Group-Centered Leadership (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1955), p. 65.

²Wayne County Intermediate School District, Detroit, Michigan, Things to Do to Build Communication and Trust (Arlington, Va.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 160927, 1972), p. 5.

³Arthur B. Van Gundy, Jr., Techniques of Structured Problem Solving (New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Company, 1981), pp. 10-11.

⁴Information on the "Itemized Response" (IR) was taken from David Oates, "The Boom in Creative Thinking," in Intercom: Readings in Organizational Communication, eds. Stewart Ferguson and Sherry Devereaux Ferguson (Rochelle Park, N.J.: Hayden Book Company, Inc., 1980), p. 353.

⁵Van Gundy, p. 5.

⁶*Ibid.*, p. 11. The problem solving stages as identified by Van Gundy.

SECTION V (Part B)

Brainstorming: A Problem-Solving Activity

(Reproduced from: A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training, Vol. III, Rev., J. William Pfeiffer and John M. Jones, eds., LaJolla, Cal.: University Associates, Inc., 1974.)

Goals:

- I. To generate an extensive number of ideas or solutions to a problem by suspending criticism and evaluation.
- II. To develop skills in creative problem-solving.

Group Size:

Any number of small groups composed of approximately six participants each.

Time Required:

Approximately one hour, for the described example.

Materials:

Newsprint and felt-tipped marker for each group.

Physical Setting:

Movable chairs for all participants.

Process:

(The facilitator may wish to do the sample experience which follows as a preliminary to a problem-solving session involving a "real" problem.)

- I. The facilitator forms small groups of approximately six participants each. Each group selects a secretary.
- II. The facilitator instructs each group to form a circle. He provides newsprint and a felt-tipped marker for each secretary and asks him to record every idea generated by the group.
- III. The facilitator states the following rules:

1. There will be not criticism during the brainstorming phase.
 2. Far-fetched ideas are encouraged because they may trigger more practical ideas.
 3. Many ideas are desirable.
- IV. The facilitator announces that participants are to imagine being cast ashore on a desert island, nude and with nothing but a belt. What can be done with the belt? He tells the groups they have fifteen minutes to generate ideas.
 - V. At the end of the generating phase, the facilitator tells the groups that the ban on criticism is over. He directs them to evaluate their ideas and to select the best ones. (If there are four or more groups, the facilitator instructs two groups to share their best ideas and to form a single list.
 - VI. The facilitator then asks participants to form one large group again. Secretaries act as spokesmen and take turns presenting the best ideas from their groups. Participants explore how two or more ideas might be used in combination.
 - VII. The facilitator writes the final ideas on newsprint, and the group is asked to rank-order them on the basis of feasibility.
 - VIII. The facilitator leads a discussion as an approach to creative problem solving.

Variations:

- I. The exercise can be preceded by a loosening-up activity, such as playing with modeling clay.
- II. Groups may be set up to compete with one another. Judges may be selected to determine criteria for ideas and to choose winning groups.
- III. Other objects can be used in the problem. Participants may brainstorm uses for a flashlight, a rope, an oar, or a corkscrew. Props may be used.

Similar Structured Experiences: Vol. II: Structured Experience 31, 40; '72 Annual: 91.

Lecturette Source: '73 Annual: "Force-Field Analysis."

SECTION V (Part B) continued

Joe Doodlebug: Group Problem-Solving

(Reproduced from: A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training, Vol. IV, J. William Pfeiffer and John E. Jones, eds., LaJolla, Cal.: Univeristy Associates, Inc., 1973.)

Goals:

- I. To explore the effect of participants' response sets in a group problem-solving activity.
- II. To observe leadership behavior in a problem-solving situation.

Group Size:

Unlimited number of groups of six (five members and an observer). Left-over members can work as process observers.

Time Required:

Approximately forty-five minutes.

Materials Utilized:

- I. Joe Doodlebug Rule Cards (a set of five for each group).
- II. Joe Doodlebug Briefing Sheets.
- III. Problem-Solving Process Observation Forms.

Physical Setting:

Groups are seated in circles far enough apart so as not to influence each other.

Process:

- I. The facilitator distributes Joe Doodlebug Briefing Sheets to members of each group. Observers are given copies of the Problem-Solving Process Observation Form.
- II. After participants have had time to read the background information, he distributes Joe Doodlebug Rule Cards. Within each group each member gets a different rule card.

- III. Groups are instructed to begin solving the problem in accordance with the rules. When there is substantial agreement within a group that the solution has been reached, the process observer gives a report and facilitates a discussion of how the group organized to accomplish its task.
- IV. The facilitator solicits brief reports from each of the groups on the process that they developed to solve the problem. Then he asks for the solution from each group.
- V. Group members are asked to give each other feedback, with the observer's help, on what behaviors each displayed that influence the group.
- VI. The facilitator presents a lecturette on the concept of shared leadership, stressing the responsibility of the individual member for both task attainment and group maintenance.
- VII. Solution: At the moment Joe's master placed the food down, Joe had already jumped once to the east. He therefore has to jump sideways three times more to the east, and once sideways to the west, landing on top of the food. He can eat now.

Variations:

- I. The problem can be made more difficult by adding redundant information.
- II. The rules can be given to each member in the form of a handout.
- III. Groups can be given a tight time limit of, perhaps, ten minutes.
- IV. Should the groups not reach a decision after a reasonable amount of time or progress at a suitable pace, the facilitator may introject hints into the group discussion.

The hints are given as needed and as follows:

- Joe does not have to face the food in order to eat it (the facing belief).
- Joe can jump sideways and backwards as well as forwards (the direction belief).
- Joe was moving east when the food was presented (the movement belief).

- V. The process described above can be followed by an original problem; that is, each group can develop a new "Joe-Doodlebug-type" problem. These can be exchanged across groups for a second round of shared leadership problem-solving.
- VI. Larger groups can be accommodated, with some members having no rule cards.

Similar Structured Experience: Vol. II: 29, 31; Vol. IV: 102, 117.

Lecturette Source: '73 Annual: "Synergy and Consensus-Seeking."

*This problem is adapted from a classic work by Milton Rokeach, The Open and Closed Mind (New York: Basic Books, 1960.)

Joe Doodlebug Rule Cards

Each of the following five rules should be typed on a 3 x 5 card. These sets are to be distributed to groups, the cards to be given out randomly within each group of five members.

Joe can jump in only four different directions: north, south, east, and west. He cannot jump diagonally (northeast, northwest, southeast, or southwest).

Once Joe starts in any direction, he must jump four times in that same direction before he can change his direction.

Joe can only jump. He cannot crawl, fly or walk.

Joe can jump very large distances or very small distances, but not less than one inch per jump.

Joe cannot turn around.

Joe Doodlebug Briefing Sheet

The Situation:

Joe Doodlebug is a strange sort of imaginary bug that can and cannot do certain things. He has been jumping all over the place getting some exercise when his master places a pile of food three feet directly west of him. As soon as he sees all this food, he stops in his tracks, facing north. He notes that the pile of food is a little larger than he.

After all this exercise Joe is very hungry and wants to get the food as quickly as he can. He examines the situation and then says, "Darn it, I'll have to jump four times to get the food."

The Problem:

Joe is a smart bug, and he is dead right in his conclusion. Why do you suppose Joe Doodlebug has to take four jumps, no more and no less, to reach the food?

Problem-Solving Process Observation Form

Take notes in the blank spaces provided. Record who did what.

Organization

How did the group get started?

How did they begin sharing resources?

What procedures did they develop to solve the problem?

Data Flow

How did the group get out all the information?

What data were accepted? Rejected?

How was the information collated or compiled?

Data Processing

How did the group stay on track?

What decision rules emerged?

What visual aids were employed?

How was consensus achieved and tested?

Critiquing

How did the group discuss its own functioning?

What climate emerged in the meeting?

SECTION VI (Part A)

Counseling

Regardless of the reason for which a counseling session is undertaken, "counseling is essentially a helping relationship."¹ Whether the purpose of the session is the discussion of a personal problem, a performance appraisal, or career counseling, etc., the success of the counseling session is determined largely by the relationship the individuals have before the session begins or what can be developed during the session. "For counseling to be effective, there must be a meaningful relationship between the two people, and this relationship takes place by the mutual consent of the people involved."² When an individual believes that a counseling session is going to take place, but finds it to be disciplinary in nature, a no-win situation arises. The counselee becomes defensive and the counselor already has predetermined notions of the results or outcome that should arise from the "counseling." To accomplish the same purpose, the counselor only needed to use the authority of his position and direct that certain behaviors follow. However, this is not the purpose of counseling. It is true that one counsels in an attempt to affect human behavior, but it should be a time for individuals to reflect upon past actions and determine how to change behavior, if that need be the case. It is a time for both individuals to grow and develop, gain information, re-align goals and objectives, and explore possibilities

for the future. In essence, it is a one-on-one problem solving session. Even if the behaviors are consistent with expectations, the individuals should identify possible weak areas to avoid in the future. Counseling should also develop potential by exploring alternatives.

Any counseling session should be the peak of proficiency for a developmental leader. Counseling provides an opportunity for the use of all the skills of a developmental leader. It is the culmination of all the leader's efforts and skills drawn together for a short period of time.

The goal of counseling should be human understanding rather than discipline, behavior change, etc. If human understanding were used as a basis for entering a counseling relationship, both parties to the counseling session would be able to be more open and honest.

You bridge the interpersonal gap as you increase the understanding you and another share. A shared understanding means that each of you has accurate information about the other's (a) ideas and suggestions, and (b) feelings--his intentions, emotional responses, assumptions.³

The counselee need not be defensive and hide the real reasons for behaving as he did because he knows the counselor is trying to empathize with him. This can only be done if the counselee is sincere in his communications. Likewise, the counselee must try to empathize with the leader and discover why the leader has imposed certain standards, made decisions, etc., and follow the "line" that he does. By entering into the relationship with human understanding as the goal, the

individuals can reverse roles and explore possible solutions that they were closed to previously by their limited perceptions. In this way, the likelihood of affecting behaviors to the benefit of both individuals is increased.

Behavior is a reflection of personal beliefs and values and by entering into a counseling session one can gain an awareness of the attitudes, beliefs, etc., that his behaviors reflect. If, for some reason, attitude change is to be effected, awareness is the critical first step.

With this in mind, a leader's perspective of counseling encompasses all the skills and attitudes development in sections I-V of this chapter. It entails being aware of personal attitudes and beliefs, active listening, giving goal oriented instructional communication, conflict management, and creative problem solving. A technique like the IR proves to be invaluable.

Every counseling situation is different from any previous one and resolving each situation creatively (in a unique fashion) is important. If there were set rules for each type of situation, why bother counseling? One could merely administer the proper commands and achieve the desired results. But, since empathy (understanding an individual from that individual's frame of reference) is the key to any helping relationship,⁴ every counseling scenario is different. The parties to the counseling are unique and the counseling is only as good as what the individuals share

during that counseling. What they give of each other during that experience can never be duplicated.

The leader, or counselor, is responsible for the structure of the counseling session. Structuring it in a manner which will guarantee success by capitalizing on openness, honesty, and trust is essential.

The functions of information seeking and information sharing, along with the generation of possible ideas which lead to decision making and decision implementation can all be enhanced through empathy. The skills involved in active listening, the use of the "itemized response," positive reinforcement, etc., are crucial.

Although the management of the session is the leader's responsibility, ownership belongs to the subordinate, or client. Not only will the subordinate's immediate involvement in the session make that individual feel good about his responsibilities, but the long-term results will be an individual who understands his worth in the organization, better understands the organization, and reflects these qualities in his performance. Paying attention to the feelings being expressed is important because it helps set the agenda of the meeting. The subordinate senses whether the counselor (leader) is saying, "It is important, talk about it," or "Go ahead and talk about it, if it is important." In the first expression the counselor is forcing the issue by exerting pressure on the subordinate to value

something as important to the same degree as the leader has done. However, in the second expression, the leader legitimizes the feelings present and leaves it up to the subordinate to decide whether or not it is important.⁵

The degree of trust in a relationship determines the effect of the responses in the discussion. The effect can either be "freeing" (as in the second response above) or "binding" (as in the first response).⁶

ENDNOTES

¹Cal W. Downs, Paul G. Smeyak, and Ernest Martin, Professional Interviewing (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1980), p. 190.

²Ibid.

³Frank Furlong, Mary Kerns, and Maggie Rogers, eds. Leadership at Leavenworth (Arlington, Va.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 171317, 1978), p. 16.

⁴Barbara F. Okun, Effective Helping: Interviewing and Counseling Techniques (North Scituate, Mass.: Duxbury Press, 1976), p. 7.

⁵This paragraph is a summary of material in Richard D. Mann, Interpersonal Styles and Group Development, in collaboration with Graham S. Gibbard and John J. Hartman (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1967), p. 123.

⁶Wayne County Intermediate School District, Detroit, Michigan, Things to Do to Build Communication and Trust (Arlington, Va.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 160927, 1972), p. 11-12.

SECTION VI (Part B)

Absentee: A Management Role Play

(Reproduced from: A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training, Vol. V, eds. J. William Pfeiffer and John E. Jones, LaJolla, Cal.: University Associates, Inc., 1975.)

Goals:

- I. To explore the dynamics of decision making.
- II. To study the resolution and management of conflict.
- III. To reveal loyalty patterns among peers and superiors.

Group Size:

Two groups of five to seven members each. Several pairs of groups may be directed simultaneously.

Time Required:

Approximately one and one-half hours.

Materials:

- I. A copy of the Absentee Information Sheet for each participant.
- II. A pencil and paper for each participant.

Physical Setting:

A room large enough for each group to sit in a circle without distracting the other group.

Process:

- I. In a brief introduction, the facilitator gives an overview of the activity. He does not state the goals of the activity.
- II. The facilitator forms two groups of five to seven members each. He announces that each group is to sit in a circle away from the other group. One group is designated "top management" and the other "middle management."

- III. The facilitator distributes the Absentee Information Sheet to all participants and tells them to spend ten minutes studying it and making notes on how they would resolve the problem.
- IV. The facilitator then tells the groups that they have twenty-five minutes to discuss the problem and to reach consensus on a solution. After the groups have been working for ten minutes, the facilitator interrupts and randomly appoints one member of each group to be its leader for the remainder of the time.
- V. At the end of twenty-five minutes, the facilitator stops the discussion. He directs the middle-management leader to assume the role of spokesman for his group.
- VI. The spokesman goes to the top-management group and presents the recommendations of his team. The remaining middle managers silently observe this meeting.
- VII. The middle-management group is instructed to reconvene in its original meeting place to give its leader feedback and to speculate on the pending decisions of top management. Concurrently, the top-management team makes its final decision. (Five minutes.)
- VIII. The top-management team summons the middle-management spokesman to receive its decision. (The other middle-management members continue their meeting.)
- IX. The middle-management spokesman returns to his group to announce the decision of top management. The top-management members observe the reactions of the middle-management group and discuss their observations. (Ten minutes.)
- X. Participants pair off with members of the other group to discuss their learnings. (Ten minutes.)
- XI. The facilitator leads a discussion of the outcomes of the experience. He keeps the discussion from stressing the "correct" solution and focuses instead on the process.

Variations:

- I. The pairs of groups can be designated "labor" and "management."
- II. Another problem can be used.
- III. After step IX, an image exchange can be held (Vol. III, Structured Experience 68).
- IV. A person can be designated to play the role of Novak and to attend the middle-management meetings.

Similar Structured Experiences: Vol. III: Structured Experiences 68; '75 Annual: 144, 145.

Suggested Instruments: '72 Annual: "Supervisory Attitudes: The X-Y Scale"; '73 Annual: "LEAD (Leadership: Employee-Orientation and Differentiation) Questionnaire"; '75 Annual: "Problem-Analysis Questionnaire," "Decision-Style Inventory," "Diagnosing Organization Ideology."

Lecturette Sources: '74 Annual: "Conflict-Resolution Strategies," "Personal and Organizational Pain: Costs and Profits," "Communication Patterns in Organization Structure," "Individual Needs and Organizational Goals: An Experiential Lecture"; '75 Annual: "Participatory Management: A New Morality," "The Supervisor as Counselor."

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Absentee Information Sheet

Background:

Bob Ford has been a test supervisor in the quality-control section for five months. He was promoted on the basis of his excellent performance in the research and development (R&D) section. Although his new subordinates do not question Ford's engineering ability, they are still grumbling about the fact that their fellow worker, Bill Novak, was passed over in favor of an "outsider."

The Critical Incidents:

1. Ford's supervisor had asked to have a "good man" sent over to R&D to help out with a special problem for four days. Looking over the job and surveying his staff, Ford decided that Novak was best qualified.

Friday afternoon, Ford called Novak into his office and said, "Bill, the superintendent has a special project going in the R&D section and needs some help. Since our schedule is flexible, I'm sending you over there for a short time, starting Monday."

Novak answered, "Why pick me? I like the work I'm doing here. Do you have any complaints about my work?"

Ford shook his head. "No, but I don't have time to argue with you. Be over there Monday morning."

Novak stormed out of Ford's office without saying a word.

2. Late Monday morning, the superintendent called Ford. "I thought you were sending Novak over here to help me out. I'm on a tight schedule with a subcontractor, Bob, and I need Novak now!"

Ford replied, "I told him to report to you this morning. He hasn't shown up here, and he should have called in by 9 o'clock if he wasn't coming in today. I assumed he was over there working with you. I'll send one of the other men over in a few minutes."

As Ford picked up the phone to call Novak's home, his secretary walked in and announced that Novak's wife had just called. "She says Novak is sick and will probably be out for a few days."

3. Wednesday morning, Ford was holding a staff meeting; he had to leave to answer a telephone call. Returning to the conference room, he was just in time to hear one of his men, whose back was turned to him, say, "Novak really made a pile on that poker game last night, didn't he?"

For the rest of the meeting, the men avoided Ford's glances. On Friday, Novak handed in a doctor's certificate for four days' sick leave.

Ford knows that the crew is waiting to see what he will do.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS OF A DEVELOPMENTAL LEADERSHIP APPROACH

A new pattern of leadership needs to be discovered--one that frees the individual from the control of external authority imposed upon him. Society needs to evolve a kind of leadership that puts human values first, a leadership that facilitates man's realization of his creative capacities, man's free expression of his individuality, man's actualization of his own uniqueness.¹

The concept of developmental leadership, the attitude and corresponding behaviors, could be that "new pattern of leadership" that is being asked for. Developmental leadership reflects an attitude that emphasizes each person's individual worth, creativity, and uniqueness. The attitude the leader has towards people is the reason the leader enters into interpersonal relationships with his subordinates and that attitude is reinforced by the leader in his behavior. The behavior is intent on getting the subordinate involved in that person's job, the organization, and himself in an effort to develop the subordinate so he can see and experience a feeling of self-actualization. Developmental leadership is an attitude about people that expresses vision and values intended to bring out the best in the subordinates.²

A new model of leadership that expresses an ethic of self-development is needed, not just at the top, but at all levels of large business, government, unions, and non-profit organizations. It

must bring out the best in the new social character while helping to adapt older social characters to a changing environment.³

If the leadership does not see and respond to the challenge, the followership will demand it. Followers have never been as passive as they have been portrayed, and now they are better informed, more aggressive and more vocal. They want a "piece of the action," they want to be involved. The leader who survives will be the one who realizes that nothing is more important than the interpersonal relationships that must be developed.⁴

A developmental leadership approach is a way to accommodate the needs of the followers, stressing individuality and self-actualization, and concurrently meet the needs of the organization as well. The "best of both worlds" is not unattainable and the developmental leader is just the person to make it happen.

In his book, The Leader, Michael Maccoby studies six individuals whom he labels "effective leaders." He notes that they all have a caring, respectful and responsive attitude toward their subordinates, are flexible about people and organizational structure, and demonstrate a participative approach to management.⁵

They don't try to control everyone. They involve subordinates in planning and evaluation of work, spending time in meetings so that the whole team shares an understanding of goals, values, priorities, and strategies. They spend more time up front developing consensus, but less time reacting to mistakes and misunderstandings.⁶

This type of leadership must be relationship oriented. The leader must, through his actions and behaviors, communicate to the subordinates a feeling of trust and confidence, an appreciation for their work, and a dependence on their abilities in order to accomplish the whole task. The training program in Chapter III emphasizes this type of attitude in a leader and illustrates some critical functional areas where the leader can be most effective in communicating this attitude to his subordinates. Obviously, the attitude must be present at all times, but it is most effectively expressed in the interpersonal communications and relationship building functional areas identified in the training design.

A developmental leader recognizes the difference between being an effective leader and leadership effectiveness. The former comes from interpersonal influence with subordinates. The latter is determined by the organization to the extent that the leader's influence on the subordinates is in such a manner that results in behaviors commensurate with organizational goals.⁷ The attitude and behaviors of a developmental leadership will achieve leadership effectiveness which includes being an effective leader. However, it will do more. The subordinates will achieve a feeling of self-actualization during the process. Anyone can make people comply with requirements to reach organizational goals. This is management effectiveness, not leadership effectiveness. The common denominator might be organizational goals, but

leadership effectiveness reaches it in quite a different fashion. A leader reaches organizational goals by developing the subordinates in such a way as the subordinates begin to internalize the values of the organization. This is done through communication. It is establishing, building, and maintaining an interpersonal relationship which can only be done through communication. An individual in a supervisory position can always test whether he is a leader or a manager. The test is simple--don't show up for work one day. Persons that were led will continue to produce at the same rate as if the leader were present. Persons that were managed will produce at a level below what is satisfactory. These people have only been motivated through fear and punishment. Any day the "fear" is not present, the work will not get done. Conversely, a leader who has developed his subordinates will notice no difference in their activity. They know their worth to the organization and want it to function well because that is when they function well.

The importance of a developmental leadership approach cannot be over-emphasized. Every time an individual, a leader, has an opportunity to build upon an interpersonal relationship, he would be remiss if he did not capitalize on it. The age of technology is rapidly approaching a time where the test for leadership effectiveness will be a reality of life. Interpersonal encounters in an organization are, and will continue to be, fewer and fewer.

The medium used to communicate cannot replace the effect of face-to-face communication for building and maintaining a relationship.⁸ If supervisors can get a satisfactory level of productivity only when they are present, imagine the results when they must communicate through a computer. A developmental leader would not have experienced the same problem.

There are certain obvious limitations to a developmental style, or approach, to leadership. Relationship building is an extremely time consuming process. One might not have time to consult with subordinates in a crisis situation. The leader must act and act quickly. Additionally, it may not be possible for the leader to align some people's individual goals with organizational goals. For those individuals, compliance may need to be the goal of the leader rather than involvement or internalization. However, when time is not a factor and the opportunity exists to align subordinates' individual goals with organizational goals, it would be time well spent to "develop those subordinates."

ENDNOTES

¹Thomas Gordon, Group-Centered Leadership (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1955), p. 3.

²This sentence is a paraphrase of Michael Maccoby, The Leader (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1981), p. 52.

³Ibid., p. 54.

⁴This paragraph is a summary of Berlie J. Fallon, The Art of Followership (Bloomington, Ind.: The Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1974), pp. 36-37.

⁵Maccoby, p. 221.

⁶Ibid., p. 223.

⁷See the discussion of "successful" leadership acts versus "effective" leadership acts as presented by Fred E. Fiedler, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967), p. 31.

⁸An interpretation of the findings from a study done to determine the effect of teleconferencing and leadership emergence by Lloyd H. Strickland and others, "Teleconferencing and Leadership Emergence," Human Relations 31 (July 1978): 593.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
COMMUNICATIONS AUDIT OF LEADERSHIP
TRAINING PROGRAMS

Developing and maintaining interpersonal relations is the bedrock of a developmental leadership style. Expressing a helping relationship is critical to this task. If productivity is reflective of effective communication¹ and the ability to influence is reflective of one's effectiveness as a communicator,² it would not be unreasonable to expect communication to be a major portion of leadership training. Leadership is the ability to influence in an interpersonal mode, a relationship, just as communication is a relationship of a complementary transaction.³ For an individual to improve his ability to influence others as a leader, he should concentrate on his effectiveness as an interpersonal communicator.

Human understanding should be the goal and focus of any interpersonal relationship. Understanding breeds commitment to the organization rather than alienating the individual from the organization. Leadership intent on human understanding will help develop subordinates and complete the circle of individual and organization growth and development. The leader's behaviors will involve the subordinates who, in turn, will begin to internalize the organizational values.

Louise Sandmeyer, et al., reports that this complementary growth and development identified above is not the case in leadership training programs. She cites Kaye and Scheele (1975) who report their findings of a survey of 60 leadership training programs for women. They state that the programs were either developed to highlight individual or organizational goals, but not both. Programs were either intent on life planning (taking charge of one's life) or managing business within the particular organization.⁴

For the purpose of this study, the communications training blocks contained in two leadership training programs offered at the United States Army Infantry School at Fort Benning, Georgia, were compared. The Infantry Officer Advanced Course (IOAC) in 1981 allowed two hours for communications training out of 55 hours of leadership instruction. The focus was on employing effective interpersonal and organizational communication and identifying barriers to effective communication and communication breakdowns.

The most recent (1982) IOAC communication training instruction similarly focuses on employing effective communication and identifying communications barriers and breakdowns, but has more interpersonal relationship building in it. There is a more humanistic approach to communication training in the leadership program and the communication training is coupled with a counseling exercise which enables the trainee to experience the attitudes and behaviors

identified. However, neither program stresses the necessity for subordinate involvement in the organization which can be accomplished through communication as the program developed in this paper does. The program developed in Chapter III of this paper should effect attitude and behavioral change in both the leader and the subordinates. The programs audited for this study emphasize leader skills only.

ENDNOTES

¹Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1961), p. 49.

²Ibid., p. 55.

³The idea that "communication is a relationship of a complementary transaction" comes from James J. Cribbin, Effective Managerial Leadership (New York: American Management Association, Inc., 1972), p. 161.

⁴Louise Sandmeyer, et al., A Program for Optimizing Women's Leadership Skills (OWLS), editor and introduction by Gary R. Walz and Libby Benjamin (Arlington, Va.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 150480, 1977), p. 32. Citing B. Kaye and A. Scheele, "Leadership Training," New Directions for Higher Education 3 (1975):79-93.

APPENDIX B

NEEDS ANALYSIS

One of the things that establishes the credibility of a training design is a needs analysis. The needs analysis identifies those areas where the trainees need training. There must be a demonstrated lack of performance in the specific areas for a training need to be identified. The driving force in this needs analysis and subsequent training program design is a lack of performance on the part of leaders to develop their subordinates. One of the reasons for this is the confusion about management and leadership which has been addressed in this paper. Another reason is the pressure put on individuals placed in leadership positions to perform; to get results for the organization. With this pressure, an individual has little time to develop subordinates, and the result is a compliance mentality. Regardless of the reasons why leaders did not develop subordinates, the problem remains that they must.

In order to get commitment from subordinates (get involvement and have subordinates internalize organizational values), the leaders must build and maintain interpersonal relations. Subordinates will respond to leaders who display a helping attitude towards them. The relationship is developed through the communication process. Communication

is the link between leader and subordinate. It also has a positive correlation to productivity. This establishes communication as the critical function for a leader in developing relationships, thus becoming a developmental leader.

Numerous authors have delineated the communication skills inherent in developing an interpersonal relationship.

A summary of the skills is listed below:

- does not criticize or ridicule members' suggestions; is sensitive to feelings and listens well (Giammatteo and Giammatteo, pp. 2-3)
- in problem and solving and decision making: listens, consults, and involves subordinates while accepting suggestions and refining the plan; delegates and involves the subordinates while implementing the plan; and listens and observes when monitoring the plan. (Brown, David, p. 33.)
- uses reception skills of paraphrasing and perception checking to acknowledge that the individual is heard; and uses transmission skills of behavior description and feeling description rather than evaluating behaviors of subordinates (Furlong, p. 16).
- builds trust in a relationship through empathy [listening] (Okun, p. 7)
- speaks with clarity, listens with sincerity (Brodbelt, p. 217)
- demonstrates concern, understanding and interest. [Listens with empathy] (Danley, p. 79)
- develops the helping skills of
 - 1) attending - listening, demonstrates interest
 - 2) leading - asks leading questions to open up discussion
 - 3) focusing - breaking large problems down
 - 4) questioning with open-ended questions
 - 5) clarifying - for self and other
 - 6) reflecting - share feeling of other
 - 7) respecting - show positive attitude
 - 8) summarizing

(Miltz, pp. 7-8)

- listens empathically and is an effective speaker (Wagner, pp. 20-23)
- is a reflective listener so as not to be evaluative in responses (Simeone, p. 49).
- develops a supportive climate and uses descriptive speech (Smith, David pp. 353-354).
- is an active listener and listens from the other's frame of reference (Cribbin, pp. 172-173)
- speaks clearly; listens effectively; obtains and provides feedback (draft copy of a Leadership Task List for Lieutenants provided by Major Williams, Leadership Department, Fort Benning, Georgia, pp. 20-21)

The summary of findings indicate some underlying themes that continue to surface in much of the literature. Leaders need to be effective, active and reflective listeners, non-evaluative and non-judgmental in their speech, speak clearly and accurately, and give and solicit feedback.

Since the design of the program is such that subordinate involvement is the goal, the communication needs of leaders that will directly involve subordinates are as follows:

1. Leaders need to be effective, active and reflective listeners.
2. Leaders need to develop trust in their subordinates.
3. Leaders need to understand communication as dialogue.
4. Leaders need to gain an understanding of messages sent in non-verbal behaviors.
5. Leaders need to understand the factors that contribute to communication barriers and breakdowns.

6. Leaders need to learn how to give feedback and solicit feedback.

7. Leaders need to learn how to complete accurate and concise goal oriented instructions.

8. Leaders need to learn how to make descriptive comments.

9. Leaders need to learn how to use the itemized response.

10. Leaders need to learn how to delegate authority to subordinates to establish ownership.

11. Leaders need to understand perception as a potential communication problem.

12. Leaders need to learn how to speak to subordinates in the same metaphor as the subordinate is using.

13. Leaders need to understand attitude change theory and know how to effect attitude change.

14. Leaders need to learn how to ask questions that are freeing rather than limiting.

The needs identified above can be learned and used by the leader, especially, in the leadership functional areas presented in Chapter III. These areas are critical areas where the leader can obtain subordinate involvement, which is the first step to obtaining commitment and leads to development.

APPENDIX C
TRAINING GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

Section I - Identifying Leader-Follower Style

Goals:

- . To learn about one's own preferred leadership style.
- . To gain an understanding of one's personal philosophy of the nature of man.
- . To learn how one's behavior relates to his attitude of leadership.

Objectives:

At the completion of this block of instruction the trainee will:

- . be able to identify his own leadership style
- . be able to explain the assumptions about the nature of man in the Theory X and Theory Y models
- . be able to explain his attitude about the nature of man
- . be able to determine if one's behaviors are consistent with his attitudes of leadership

The objectives will be accomplished in a classroom environment with the help of a self-report test to force participants to reflect upon attitudes and past behaviors.

Section II - Listening

Goals:

- . To gain an understanding of the difference in messages and meaning

- . To realize the importance of listening
- . To understand how listening can help identify true meanings in messages
- . To understand how listening reflects an attitude about man

Objectives:

At the completion of this block of training the trainees will:

- . be able to explain the importance of listening to a relationship
- . be able to explain how messages and meanings can be confused
- . develop skills in active, reflective listening
- . demonstrate how empathy increases human understanding

The objectives will be accomplished with the aid of a structured experience where individuals will be grouped together and engaged in role playing, speaking on topics of their choice selected from a list and listening to what others have to say when they are afforded the opportunity to speak.

Section III - Giving Instructions/Making Corrections

Goals:

- . To gain an understanding of how perception changes meanings in messages
- . To learn the criteria for sending goal-oriented messages
- . To learn methods of getting subordinates to accept ownership of a task once the task is assigned

Objectives:

At the completion of the training, the trainees will:

- . be able to explain how two-way communication aided in understanding
- . be able to give goal-oriented instructions based on the SPIRO model

Given a structured experience to help illustrate one-way and two-way communications.

Section IV - Conflict Management

Goals:

- . To gain an understanding of the various ways an individual can deal with organizational and personal conflicts
- . To learn how to make conflict constructive
- . To illustrate how competition leads to conflict
- . To illustrate the competitive atmosphere present when more than one group is working on a task

Objectives:

At the completion of the training, the trainees will:

- . be able to identify various manners in dealing with conflict
- . be able to describe the things to consider when developing a conflict management system
- . be able to explain how the groups interacted
- . be able to explain the feelings present in a win-lose situation

The objectives will be accomplished with the help of a structured experience to illustrate and dramatize conflict and competition.

Section V - Problem Solving/Decision Making

Goals:

- . To gain an understanding of how problem solving and decision making can lead to organizational commitment of the subordinate
- . To learn ways in which an individual's contributions to a group can be confirmed
- . To gain an understanding of how individuals are confirmed or disconfirmed when working on problems

Objectives:

At the completion of the training, the trainees will:

- . be able to demonstrate how to make an itemized response
- . be able to explain applications of the itemized response to other settings
- . develop skills in creative problem solving
- . be able to explain behaviors that helped and hindered the group process
- . be able to explain how information was shared in the group

The objectives will be accomplished with the help of two structured experiences to illustrate the potential of group problem solving and decision making.

Section VI - Counseling

Goals:

- . To gain an understanding of the counseling relationship
- . Use the human relations skills identified in Sections I - V

Objectives:

At the completion of this training block, the trainees will:

- . be able to identify the goal of counseling
- . explain how information might be used by a leader to pre-judge a situation
- . be able to express a helping attitude toward subordinates

The objectives will be accomplished in a role-play situation described in a structured experience where counseling must be performed.

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